Open Minds: Opportunities for Gender Equity in Education

Open Minds

Opportunities for Gender Equity in Education

A Report on Central and South Eastern Europe and the Former Soviet Union

Cathryn Magno
Iveta Silova
Susan Wright
with Eniko Demeny

OPEN SOCIETY INSTITUTE
Education Support Program
Network Women's Program
www.soros.org

OSI

OPEN SOCIETY INSTITUTE

Open Minds

Opportunities for Gender Equity in Education

A Report on Central and South Eastern Europe and the Former Soviet Union

Open Minds

Opportunities for Gender Equity in Education

A Report on Central and South Eastern Europe and the Former Soviet Union

Cathryn Magno
Iveta Silova
Susan Wright
with Eniko Demeny

OPEN SOCIETY INSTITUTE
EDUCATION SUPPORT PROGRAM
NETWORK WOMEN'S PROGRAM

Published by the Open Society Institute
400 West 59th Street, New York, NY 10019

For more information, contact:
Education Support Program
Open Society Institute
Tel: (36 1) 327 3100
Fax: (36 1) 327 3101
espassistance@osi.hu
http://www.osi-edu.net/esp

Network Women's Program
Open Society Institute
Tel: (212) 548 0162
Fax: (212) 548 4616
women@sorosny.org
http://www.soros.org/women

Designed by Diana Szabo | Artemix Grafika
Printed in Hungary by Printenziv

Education Support Program

The Education Support Program (ESP) of the Open Society Institute facilitates and informs the pursuit of education change and of national policy development in line with a shared open society mission. ESP's approach to education provision and policy is based on developing human potential, furthering systemic changes, finding cost-effective and sustainable solutions, with a focus on equity and quality in education, and promoting democratic governance. ESP collaborates with local and international experts to create appropriate solutions in education development. The Program plays a broker's role in delivering the best expertise available, particularly from within the region, to address the considerable challenges the region presents. ESP undertakes and supports analyses of "best practice" in the countries in which it works, drawing the policy messages that would allow projects to move to wider and more systemic application.

Network Women's Program

The Network Women's Program of the Open Society Institute promotes the advancement of women's human rights, gender equality, and empowerment as an integral part of the process of democratization. The Program encourages, supports, and initiates gender-inclusive projects in the countries of the Soros foundations network. The Women's Program seeks to raise public awareness of gender issues, influence policymakers to develop gender-sensitive policies, and eradicate violations of women's rights. It works to create effective and sustainable women's movements, promoting exchange and cooperation among women's organizations that work for women's empowerment and gender equality locally, nationally, and internationally.

Open Society Institute

The Open Society Institute (OSI), a private operating and grantmaking foundation based in New York City, implements a range of initiatives to promote open society by shaping government policy and supporting education, media, public health, and human and women's rights, as well as social, legal, and economic reform. To foster open society on a global level, OSI aims to bring together a larger Open Society Network of other nongovernmental organizations, international institutions, and government agencies. OSI was created in 1993 by investor and philanthropist George Soros to support his foundations in Central and Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union. Those foundations were established, starting in 1984, to help former communist countries in their transition to democracy. OSI has expanded the activities of the Soros foundations network to other areas of the world where the transition to democracy is of particular concern. The network encompasses more than 50 countries with initiatives in Africa, Central Asia and the Caucasus, Latin America, and Southeast Asia, as well as in Haiti, Mongolia, and Turkey. OSI also supports programs in the United States and selected projects elsewhere in the world.

Contents

Foreword

The Education Support Program (ESP) and the Network Women's Program (NWP) of the Open Society Institute (OSI) are pleased to present this regional overview on gender equity in education in Central Europe, South Eastern Europe, and the former Soviet Union. Based on both quantitative data and qualitative analysis of the challenges to gender equity in education in the region, ESP and NWP trust that this report will be a useful tool and catalyst for policymakers and educators from the region in promoting equitable educational reform.

The report also draws the attention of global policymakers to the unique challenges facing educational reformers in this region, for example in the context of the Millennium Development Goals. One of the report's key points—that girls from vulnerable socioeconomic groups are at greater risk for losing out on educational opportunities—should be central to regional policymaking efforts within and beyond the educational sector.

Finally, the report argues that while there are significant challenges to such reform, there are also resources within the region on which to build. These resources include a strong commitment to educational reform (by governments, NGOs, educators, and parents), a focus on critical thinking, and a body of knowledge on curriculum development and innovative pedagogy developed within gender studies programs and women's NGOs in the last decade.

In short, we believe that the time is right and the policy environment ready for an extended discussion of gender equity in education. We hope that policymakers, administrators, teachers, parents, and advocates will find in *Open Minds* a useful tool for change.

We thank OSI's women's program coordinators and education coordinators who provided background data for this report and the policy researchers who brought it all together: Susan Wright, Iveta Silova, Cathryn Magno, Laura Grünberg, and Eniko Demeny. Without the support of Terrice Bassler (director, Open Society Education Programs–South East Europe) and Anastasia Posadskaya-Vanderbeck (director, Network Women's Program), this project would not have come to fruition.

We look forward to subsequent conversations and debates on how to promote gender equity in education.

Jana Huttova
Director, Education Support Program

Debra L. Schultz
Director of Programs, Network Women's Program

Introduction

In the last decade, gender equity has become one of the most prominent issues in education reform efforts worldwide. International organizations and governments have increasingly recognized that gender equity strengthens democracy and serves as a hallmark of an inclusive society, which values and capitalizes on the contributions of all its members.[1] Guided by the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), and the platform of the International Conference on Population and Development (Cairo, 1994), the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing (1995) strongly articulated a global commitment to gender equity by advancing the concept of "gender mainstreaming," which promotes integration of gender-sensitive policy prescriptions into national development policies and programs at all levels and throughout all sectors. Following the Beijing Declaration, the European Union (EU) adopted an official commitment to mainstreaming gender issues across all EU policies and included the provision of equal gender opportunities as one of the preconditions for EU accession.[2]

Aiming to ensure global commitment to gender equity, the UN Millennium Declaration (2000) reaffirmed "a collective responsibility to uphold the principles of human dignity, equality and equity at the global level." Furthermore, it has set "millennium development goals," which serve as broad benchmarks for achieving more equitable societies worldwide. In the education sphere, these goals underscore the importance of ensuring equal access to education for boys and girls, eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education, developing nondiscriminatory education programs and curricula, and allocating sufficient resources for monitoring and implementation of equitable education reforms. Combined, the official endorsement of gender equality and gender equity in education as a formal goal of UN members and the international commitment to the "millennium goals" have provided a global mandate for change and a solid foundation for reevaluating both national and international policies.

Yet, questions of gender equity have received very little attention in the education reform efforts in the countries of Central and South Eastern Europe (CEE and SEE) and the former Soviet Union (fSU) during the transition period. The historically high levels of education of boys and girls in the region, a significant achievement of the communist era, has masked inequities in education systems and perpetuated a myth of gender equality in education. However, this assumption ignores both the emerging gender inequity in the region and the potential of education to reduce it. Emphasizing human rights, equality, and empowerment as integral aspects of the democratization process in CEE, SEE, and the fSU, this report underscores that open societies cannot evolve and exist without accountable respect for gender equity and diversity in all spheres of political, economic, and social life.

Priority recommendations include: 1) increased monitoring of the education system through gender disaggregated statistics; 2) reformed materials and curricula that reflect sensitivity to gender; 3) teacher training to reduce gender bias; 4) gender-aware education policy-making and decision making; 5) societal and contextual analysis of attitudes toward gender on the part of communities and parents in each country and region; and 6) ensuring that education reform is economically relevant given the growing free markets in the region. More specific recommendations are included in Chapter 5.

Gender equity in education is vital to the development of open societies. Education can either reinforce gender inequities in society, or it can challenge and mitigate them. Given the fact that students spend a considerable amount of time in schools (i.e., compulsory schooling ranges from 9 to 12 years in the region), school settings are among the most effective institutions in producing new ways of thinking and acting across differences, thus helping students to address emerging gender inequities in the society. Therefore, it is imperative to examine gender issues in education in order to address or prevent inequity when developing and implementing policies and education and training programs in CEE, SEE, and the fSU.

Goals and Objectives of the Report

The purpose of the report is to explore, identify, and explain specific issues related to gender equity and education in CEE, SEE, and the fSU in order to advocate for a greater gender balance at both policy and school levels. Focusing on the political, economic, and social changes of the 1990s, the report examines the ways in which the collapse of the socialist bloc has affected gender equity in the education sphere. In particular, the report explores the following questions:

- What were the consequences of the transition on gender equity in education in the countries of CEE, SEE, and the fSU?
- How did the transition affect educational opportunities for girls and boys?
- How do the existing, "gender-neutral" education policies and practices affect gender equity in education?
- What are the major areas of concern?
- How can a greater gender balance be achieved at both policy and school levels?

In other words, the emphasis is on *changes* in education inputs, outputs, and processes during the transition period, as well as their differential effects on gender equity in the countries of CEE, SEE, and the fSU.

Data Sources

While offering a general overview of education policies and practices in the region as a whole, the report provides more elaborate analyses and examples of gender equity issues in Albania,

Azerbaijan, Poland, Romania, Tajikistan, and Ukraine.[3] These countries were selected to reflect the geographical, economic, and social diversity of the region. The report does not include analyses of all aspects of gender equity (i.e., religion, sexual orientation), but rather focuses on the major themes for which data is available. Given the complexity of the educational issues addressed, it is impossible to generalize conclusions across the whole region. Therefore, this report aims to underscore substantial differences and similarities among subregions and within specific countries in the areas of education access, participation, and achievement, school practices, and education policies.

The report draws from a combination of quantitative and qualitative data. The quantitative data was derived from a variety of sources, including the World Bank database, UNICEF TransMONEE database, and national statistical surveys. In addition, the *Education for All 2000 Assessment: Country Reports (EFA)* provided an invaluable source of statistics broken down by gender. Quantitative information was supplemented by qualitative data, which were compiled by the staff of national Soros foundations and OSI offices, local researchers, and international consultants based on in-depth interviews, review of national legislative documents, and analysis of numerous national and international reports. A variety of data sources was sought to highlight the complexity of gender equity issues in the education systems across the region.

Overview of the Report

The main findings of the report underscore that it is crucial to identify gender issues in education *now* in order to address and prevent inequity as policy documents and education/training programs are developed and implemented. Following the description of the historical, political, and socioeconomic context of gender issues in the countries of CEE, SEE, and the fSU, Chapter 1 provides a comprehensive definition of the concept of gender equity, contextualizes it within the education setting, and explains how education can contribute to societal development. In particular, it argues that the concept of educational equity goes beyond traditional ideas of education equality and involves meeting the learning needs of students on an equal basis in order to enable all students to fulfill their potential. The chapter concludes that girls and women in the region face many socioeconomic risks, and calls for gender mainstreaming and empowerment strategies in the education sphere to promote their leadership and full participation in the renewal of their countries.

Chapter 2 reviews "traditional" indicators of education equity—access, participation, and academic achievement—in order to document differences that have emerged across both gender groups over time and their relation to other factors, including geographical locations, income levels, ethnicity, and school practices. The chapter also discusses the issues of attendance, retention, and progression of students throughout different education levels. Findings indicate more success in access and participation at compulsory (primary) levels and increasing gender-based challenges at noncompulsory levels (preschool, secondary [post–grade 9], and tertiary). In addition, poverty, rural living, and minority status all have a disproportionately negative impact on girls' participation in education.

Chapter 3 examines specific school practices that may have a significant impact on gender equity through curricula and teaching materials, teachers, and the general atmosphere of the school. It argues that children develop their ideas about gender roles from a variety of sources, but the authority that accompanies formal education makes the information, ideas, and values it transmits particularly powerful. The chapter calls for attention to increased gender balance in texts and teachers' practices as well as in the overall school environment.

Chapter 4 analyzes education policies with regard to gender equity considerations. It argues that the achievement of gender equity in education requires more than ensuring equal participation and gender-sensitive classroom practices. It demands a change in policies to tackle identified inequities through gender mainstreaming and empowerment strategies. The chapter outlines changes that are necessary in the education policymaking, implementation, and monitoring processes, and highlights strategic entry points for combating gender inequity in education, including increased analysis of education statistics and augmented roles for teacher-training institutions, international organizations, and NGOs in generating new education policy and practices.

Finally, Chapter 5 underscores the urgent need to harness the potential of education to promote equity so that the next generation of women and men can both play their full part in the economic and social renewal of their countries. The chapter suggests possible areas for intervention and provides specific recommendations for advocacy and practical interventions at both policy and school levels.

This report serves to assist educators, policymakers, and other education stakeholders in addressing identified gender inequities, with the intention of supporting the full realization of educational opportunity for all students throughout CEE, SEE, and the fSU.

1. Gender Equity and Education

Gender equity has been repeatedly dismissed as a marginal issue in the transition processes in Central and South Eastern Europe (CEE and SEE) and the former Soviet Union (fSU). It is often portrayed as a concern imported from the "West," which has no relevance to postsocialist societies with strong traditions of almost universal literacy rates, relatively equal labor force participation, fairly small gender pay gaps, and somewhat satisfactory child and maternal health. Indeed, the pretransition countries of CEE, SEE, and the fSU had spent comparatively large amounts of state budgets on social services to provide the necessary support for women to actively participate in the labor market. However, the socialist understanding of gender equality was primarily associated with equal labor market outcomes for men and women, not necessarily matched by progress toward gender equality in the private sphere or political participation.[1] Thus, women always assumed the "double burden" of long hours on the job followed by unpaid family responsibilities. Contributing to "occupational segregation" and gender pay gaps,[2] the double burden borne by women exposed apparent gender imbalances under the socialist regimes, and indicates the need for deeper investigation into inequity in other spheres such as education.

With the collapse of the state monopoly over political, economic, and social structures, the transition period has uncovered troublesome shortcomings of the legacy of gender equality in the region. This chapter identifies Soviet legacies and new socioeconomic risks affecting both women and men in the countries of CEE, SEE, and the fSU and discusses how education can address these newly emerging inequities.

Soviet Legacies and New Socioeconomic Risks

During the 1990s, major economic decline, shrinking government budgets, increasing incidence of poverty, and prevalent shortcomings of civil society strongly affected both men and women. Male disadvantage was particularly evident in the beginning of the decade, which was characterized by the male "mortality crisis"[3] and the sharp increase in mental illness and risk-taking behavior among men.[4] Male incapacity to effectively cope with stress, combined with deteriorating state health care systems, contributed to the increasing gender gap in life expectancy. In other respects, however, drastically decreasing social benefits and the collapsing state-run system of family and childcare support has disproportionately affected women, both absolutely and in relation to men. This is clearly reflected in the reemergence of traditional gen-

der stereotypes, as well as growing gender disparities in political leadership, employment, wages, and occupational positions. In addition, the transition period has uncovered new types of female disadvantage such as forced labor and trafficking, health and lifestyle-related risks, and violence. Thus, it is critical to examine equity in terms of both male and female disadvantage.

Persistent gender stereotypes

According to UNICEF,[5] pervasive gender stereotypes, traditional cultural patterns, and patriarchal attitudes prevail in the region. Following independence, the majority of the newly independent states failed to address gender inequality in the home, reinforcing the perception of women as mothers within the context of their families, rather than as individuals and independent actors in the public sphere. As the CEDAW Committee explained,[6] this stereotypical view of women lies at the root of many of the discrepancies between de jure and de facto equality in the countries of the former socialist bloc.

Decreasing female leadership roles

Opportunities for women to participate in positions of social leadership have declined during the transition period. The clearest indicator of this is the substantial decrease in the percentage of parliamentary seats held by women. For example, female representation in parliaments fell by approximately 85 percent in Albania, 83 percent in Romania, 80 percent in Russia, and 50 percent in Poland (see appendix A). In Poland, 71 percent of survey respondents pointed to women's greater domestic responsibilities as the reason for their lack of representation in public life.[7] Across the region, the decrease in women's participation is largely attributed to the dismantling of the gender quota systems in place under the Soviet system.

Falling female employment

The transition has generated an unprecedented loss of jobs. Between 1989 and 1997, an estimated 14 million jobs held by women disappeared across the region, amounting to well over half the total number of jobs lost.[8] In all of the countries in CEE, SEE, and the fSU, the proportion of adult women participating in the labor force was lower in 1997 compared to 1985. For example, women's employment fell by 35 percent in Albania, 13 percent in Poland, and 7 percent in Ukraine.[9] In some countries, men's participation rates fell too, but consistently by less than women's did.[10] In Albania, women's employment fell by 35 percent, while men's fell by 8 percent between 1989 and 1999. Women's decreasing participation in the labor force may have been related to drastically decreasing social benefits and state-financed childcare, steadily resurfacing traditional gender roles in families, and gender discrimination in the workplace.

Wasted Talent: Professional Women from Albania

"More and more women emigrate and Albanian public opinion accepts as a necessity the fact that so many female intellectuals, artists, doctors, and other professionals go to work as servants in order to improve the economic conditions of their families."

Albanian Woman Facing Transition, 1999

Unequal wages

Wage levels represent one of the greatest gender equity problems for the countries in the region. Despite consistently higher levels of education, women earn less than men. According to the latest International Helsinki Federation (IHF) report,[11] women's earnings represent between 60 percent to 85 percent of their male colleagues'. At the end of the 1990s, female wages constituted 79 percent of male wages in Poland, 72 percent in Ukraine, and 53 percent in Azerbaijan (see appendix B). In Romania, for example, the gap between women's and men's pay grew in almost every sector of the economy during the transition period. In public administration, which employs a high proportion of women, women's average monthly earnings fell from 85 percent to 78 percent of those of men between 1994 and 1998.[12]

Occupational segregation

As new market economies expanded the highly remunerative sectors of banking, insurance, and real estate, women became more concentrated in low-paid public services such as education, medical services, and culture. In addition, women have been largely confined to the lower levels of organizations. Even in sectors where women dominate the workforce, they are not adequately represented at senior levels. In Azerbaijan, women comprise 69 percent of the workforce in health and 65 percent in education, but hold only approximately 30 percent of all management jobs.[13] In Poland, women comprise 38 percent of all academic teachers, but 45 percent of academic assistants (the lowest, most poorly paid level), 34 percent of lecturers, 17 percent of assistant professors, 17 percent of professors, and only 12 percent of top professors.[14] In Tajikistan, a study found that 1.6 percent of men were "legislative, senior officials and managers" compared with just 0.6 percent of women, and 8 percent of men were "professionals" compared with 5 percent of women.[15]

Forced labor and human trafficking

Unable to find adequate employment in the formal economy, some women have been forced into underground activities without any social security. In some countries of CEE, SEE, and the

fSU, many women are forced into prostitution and trafficking without the possibility to resist, since resistance may imply starvation for themselves and for their families.[16] As emphasized in the IHF report, practically all countries in the region are affected by the phenomenon of trafficking, whether as countries of origin, transit, destination, or all of the above. Trafficking is defined by the IHF as "a very complex crime that involves forced labor, deprivation of freedom and illegal confinement, bodily and psychological injuries, battery, rape, false papers, blackmail, and illegal border crossings."

Lifestyle-related risks

The HIV/AIDS epidemic among young people is a growing concern across the region. By the end of 2001, there were an estimated one million people with HIV/AIDS, which constitutes more than a fivefold increase between 1998 and 2001.[17] Russia and Ukraine account for 90 percent of the region's estimated HIV/AIDS cases. UNICEF[18] points to the growth in substance abuse, particularly drug injection, the earlier sexual activity of young people, and the growing numbers of sex workers as the underlying reasons for the rapid spread of the disease in the region. This places women at higher risk of HIV infection directly through their greater involvement in sex work and trafficking, as well as their dependence on the risk behaviors of their regular partners, over which they may have little control.

> "HIV/AIDS has a young face in this region. Young people account for most new infections and their low levels of HIV awareness, combined with increasingly risky behavior, herald a catastrophe."
>
> *Carol Bellamy, Executive Director, UNICEF*

Health-related risks

Women's health has been exposed to greater risks during the transition period. For women, increased poverty, social stress, and changing values contributed to escalating substance abuse and unsafe sexual behavior, posing new health risks. According to UNICEF,[19] alcohol consumption and smoking, which were less prevalent among women than men in the past, are now increasing among women and adolescent girls. Women also suffer the consequences of men's substance abuse through more domestic violence or the premature death of their partners.

Violence against women

The transition period has been characterized by the increase of violence against women in its many forms, including sexual harassment in the workplace, assaults, rapes, and domestic violence (physical and emotional). Although insufficient evidence exists to determine the scope of the problem due to large numbers of unreported cases, the existing information paints a grim picture. In Romania, for example, judges reported that 60 percent of divorces in Bucharest involved physical violence against women.[20] In Ukraine, a survey of schoolgirls and schoolboys showed that 4 percent of secondary school students and 9 percent of vocational school students had been raped.[21] In Central Asia and the Caucasus, there is a growing concern about the "extreme form of domestic violence" that is experienced by "stolen brides."[22] In many countries, the criminal nature of domestic violence continues to be unrecognized and female victims do not receive adequate support from health professionals, social service workers, police officers, and judicial authorities.

Militarization and military conflict

Militarization and military conflicts throughout the region have caused disruptions in family life, including orphanage, widowhood, and separation, which in turn can cause developmental harm to children and adolescents, as well as increased risk of child labor, military recruitment, and detention. Health care, housing, and other basic services are less available in conflict and postconflict zones. Education, as a tool for psychological hardiness and a strong indicator of stability for youth, is often interrupted and chaotic. In some regions, such as the Balkans and the Caucasus, educational access, participation, and achievement have been very limited at times during the past decade, especially in areas where school infrastructure was destroyed. Further, in times of conflict, girls and women face greater gender- and ethnic-based violence, exclusions related to refugee status, sexual exploitation, and reduced protection because they have little power and are in settings where there is reduced respect for human rights.[23]

As this overview illustrates, the postsocialist legacies and socioeconomic consequences of the transition period go beyond the effect on individual women and their families. The evidence points to a growing problem of gender inequity, which places heavy costs on society in terms of wasted human capital and unused capacity to participate in emerging civil societies. Both men and women have been affected by the unemployment, falling wage levels, increased poverty, and social problems that have accompanied economic transition. Indicators show, however, that women have borne the brunt of the pain of transition. With evidence of social and economic disadvantage for women in so many spheres of life, it becomes implausible to think that education systems are uniquely immune to gender-based disadvantage. At the very least, the potential of education to reduce inequities is not being fully realized.

Education's Potential for Transformation

Both the formal curriculum of the school and the informal curriculum, which operates across all sites of students' lives (e.g., in the classroom and the playground and in peer relationships), play vital roles in how students learn about gender relations and develop a sense of self. While schools have been found to consistently reproduce gender inequity in society, they have also been found to promote change. This can occur through three main mechanisms. First, schools have the ability to create more analytical and critical minds among students, who will later be able to recognize and challenge gender inequities in society.[24] For example, irrespective of the content learned in school, educated individuals would be able to perceive contradictions in their environment, develop alternative understandings of them, and take action to address them. Second, enlightened teachers can serve as change agents in individual classrooms and schools by offering an opportunity for contestation through innovative teaching practices, learning processes, and education materials.[25] In this way, teachers can create a school environment that ensures the best possible expectations, experiences, and outcomes for all students. Finally, school leaders at all levels can support gender equity in education through attention to enrollment and retention trends, a vision for the school, and transparent decision making.

In many regions of the world, the issue of gender and education has been framed as one that demands interventions to increase girls' access to and opportunities in the classroom and the school. In most development programs, especially in Africa and Asia, objectives emphasize parental attitudes toward girls' education, equal treatment of girls and boys by teachers, and deconstructing gender stereotypes in materials. However, these approaches are not always sufficient for CEE, SEE, and the fSU. Given the historical legacies of the Soviet era, achieving gender equity through educational equality in that region requires a nuanced and careful, context-specific analysis—one that takes into account both girls' and boys' experiences in education as well as both women's and men's roles in society.

Defining gender in education: Encompassing both female and male disadvantages

In this report, gender is defined as the social construction of social, economic, and political expectations for men and women emerging from particular geographical and historical contexts. Gender is not simply biological sex difference. The definition has important implications, as it implies that men and women receive differential treatment based on social and cultural norms in society. In educational settings, such differential treatment can easily manifest itself when students are socialized into traditional gender roles or receive limited exposure to a full range of opportunities. In CEE, SEE, and the fSU, it is important to recognize that changing norms in response to political, economic, and social shifts demand attention as they affect gender relations. It is crucial to understand gender dynamics in the region and how they might inhibit girls' or boys' educational performance and/or impact their life chances upon exiting the school system. Reduction and elimination of gender barriers depend on their careful and thorough identification.

Importantly, a responsible definition of gender includes consideration of life chances for both men and women. While girls and women are more often disadvantaged by gender inequities, the burden does not fall exclusively on them. In parts of the region, men are experiencing a "sharp decline in life expectancy" and boys show "relatively high drop-out rates from secondary education."[26] A careful analysis of educational equity will reveal such complex patterns across both countries and gender groups. This indicates that comprehensive policies could be less effective than context-specific policies aimed at redressing specific inequalities.

Understanding Educational Equity

During the transition period, education systems in CEE, SEE, and the fSU took on an important role of equipping *all* students with the knowledge, skills, and values necessary for their active participation in the development of open, democratic societies. In order to assess the effectiveness of current reform initiatives and to design more effective approaches in the future, there needs to be a better understanding of the difference between equality and equity.

> "Equitable education systems . . . can play a central role in building human capital . . . strengthening democratic values, fostering social cohesion . . . and are crucial to the self-development of children and youth"
>
> *EFA Synthesis Report, 2000*

Thus far, reform initiatives in the region have largely been based on promoting the socialist legacy of equality. This approach was based on the principle of equal distribution of resources (e.g., the same quality of teaching, physical settings, textbooks, and teaching materials) among different ethnic, linguistic, cultural, and gender groups. This "gender-neutral" approach does not take into account different needs, learning styles, and life chances for boys and girls. Rather, current education policies focus simply on education equality in terms of access (getting the same opportunity to participate in the school or university), attainment (getting the same number of years of education), and achievement (demonstrated learning of the same quality and type of knowledge).

Gender-neutral policies do not necessarily ensure gender equity in education for boys and girls. For this purpose, it is necessary to distinguish between the concepts of equality and equity. In the education sphere, the term equality is used to refer to a situation in which students are equally treated through receiving the same quality of teaching and enjoying the same type of school facilities, textbooks, and teaching materials. In practical terms, this means that classrooms operate on the assumption that all students should receive the same interventions, at the same time, in the same way.

Gender equity, in contrast, is based on the principle of social justice and refers to the guarantee of fair educational outcomes, regardless of sex differences. Chapter 1 discussed the various socioeconomic risks differentially affecting girls and women, calling for increased attention to gender equity in the region. Gender-sensitive education would take into consideration the specialized needs and talents of both girls and boys, through the design of educational materials and pedagogy that are responsive to gendered disadvantages in society. This approach would equitably prepare young men and women to choose equally valued and valuable life pathways, as well as to navigate life challenges they will face based on their gender.

As Stromquist[27] emphasized, schools can no longer be seen as value-free, neutral environments that prepare all students equally for citizenship. Values-based aspects of schooling, reflected in textbooks, curriculum content, and teaching practices, are considered increasingly important in achieving gender equity. Equity minimizes disadvantages over which individuals have little or no control, including economic situation, occupational choices, income, environment, and life chances. As the OECD concludes:

> Educational equity refers to an educational environment in which individuals can consider options and make choices based on their abilities and talents, not on the basis of stereotypes, biased expectations or discrimination. The achievement of educational equity enables females and males of all races and ethnic backgrounds [to] develop skills needed to be productive, empowered citizens. It opens economic and social opportunities regardless of gender, ethnicity or social status.[28]

For disadvantaged groups, equal distribution of resources may not be sufficient to reach their full potential; therefore, special interventions may be necessary. For example, promoting girls' access to school in rural areas may not be sufficient to ensure their attendance if safe transportation means are not available. Similarly, bringing young women from poor, rural areas into a university may fail to produce the desired outcomes without providing adequate physical conditions (e.g., safe dormitories) and financial resources (e.g., scholarships) to support their retention. On a larger scale, providing young women equal access to education does not ensure their equal remuneration after graduation from education institutions. In other words, gender-blind or gender-neutral policies may not necessarily lead to educational or societal equity. Therefore, it is important to consider gender-transformative or gender-empowering approaches.

Gender-sensitive Strategies

Over the past 25 years—from the First World Conference on Women (1975), through the Decade for Women (1976–1985), until now—there has been much debate about what constitute the most

effective strategies and approaches for supporting gender equity. Since the Fourth World Conference on Women (Beijing, 1995), there has been a particular focus on three approaches:

- Women's empowerment;
- Gender mainstreaming; and
- Capacity building for institutions (including schools and universities) in order to enable them to incorporate a gender equity perspective in their work.

Women's empowerment approach

A women's empowerment approach emphasizes the importance of addressing years of discrimination against women or gender inequality by devising and incorporating programs and strategies that increase women's skills, capacities, rights, and opportunities. It addresses ways in which education initiatives help create the conditions whereby women can become the agents of their own development and empowerment. It thus emphasizes the *transformation* potential of education and development policies and practices. Women's empowerment relies on the ability of women to exercise power in the social institutions that govern their daily lives: from the household and extended family to local schools, local community associations, local markets, and local government.[29] Women's advocates have emphasized that empowerment is something women need to do for themselves. Thus, it would be misleading to assume that governments or other external agents can empower women.[30] Such agents can, however, create the institutional mechanisms through which empowerment can grow.

One aspect of empowerment is women's participation in formal decision-making structures. In particular, the Beijing Platform for Action recognized "women in power and decision-making" as a critical area of concern. In this conceptualization, power is defined less in terms of domination over others (with the implicit assumption that a gain for women implies a loss for men), but more in terms of the capacity of women to increase their own self-esteem, self-reliance, and internal strength. As both a goal and a process, women's empowerment is fundamentally connected to democratization, human rights, and the self-determination of both women and men.[31]

Gender mainstreaming

Another aspect of an empowerment approach is gender mainstreaming in both policy and practice. This aspect emphasizes the importance of addressing the different impacts and opportunities that a particular program or policy may have on women and men. The strategy focuses on making gender equity concerns central to policy formulation, legislation, resource allocations, and planning and monitoring of programs. As stated in the report on the Fourth World Conference on Women, "In addressing unequal access to and inadequate education opportunities, governments and other actors should promote an active and visible policy of mainstreaming a

gender perspective into all policies and programs, so that, before decisions are taken, an analysis is made of the effects on women and men, respectively."

> "Mainstreaming a gender perspective is the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programs, in all areas and at all levels. It is a strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programs in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal is to achieve gender equality."
>
> *UN Economic and Social Council's Agreed Conclusions, 1997/2*

Institutional capacity building

The capacity of schools and governmental institutions to increase women's empowerment and gender mainstreaming depends on their ability to go beyond basic equality measures or policies declaring equality. Many institutional and governmental leaders believe that achieving parity in numbers (i.e., 50-50) between girls and boys or women and men is sufficient. This report argues that building gender equity encompasses a wider range of initiatives, involving analysis of gender equality in school and gender equity in the larger society as well as enhancing opportunities for women to play key roles in educational decision making. This suggests that education systems must be attentive to both the overt (policies and practices) and covert (culture and human relations) processes occurring in a country.

Conclusion

Education systems shape, and are shaped by, the societies that they serve. The gender inequity identified in society is, therefore, likely to be replicated in education systems. Equity in education, including gender equity, is a mainstream goal for modern education systems. Importantly, gender equity in education means more than equality of access. If systems have reasonable levels of equity, the result should be women enjoying job and social leadership opportunities on a more equal footing with men. Given the Soviet legacies and new socioeconomic risks in CEE, SEE, and the fSU, there is an urgent need to harness the potential of education to promote equity so that the next generation of both women and men can play their full part in the economic and social renewal of their countries.

2. Education Access, Participation, and Achievement

Equitable education systems are built on the foundations of high and equal levels of education access, participation, and achievement. A system cannot be equitable if its benefits are available only to a minority or if it is not open to all regardless of gender, ethnicity, race, or social status. Three main indicators of equitable systems include the level of access to education, rates of participation, and the level of academic achievement for all educational levels, including preschool, primary, secondary, and tertiary.[1] Education access, participation, and achievement have been traditionally used as the main indicators of gender equality in education and will be the focus of this chapter. However, the next chapter will examine additional important indicators of gender equality in the schools that also impact gender equity in society.

Education Access

Attainment of high education enrollment rates for both boys and girls was one of the highest priorities of the Soviet era. This was largely successful, as girls and boys were generally enrolled at equal rates.[2] During the transition period, however, this equality has weakened, and there is evidence from some countries of emerging gender gaps at all levels of the system, particularly in the noncompulsory levels. Further, for some groups for whom access to education is already difficult—such as Roma or the very poor—there is sometimes even lower attendance among children of one gender. Girls are almost always the most negatively affected, although boys have also experienced disadvantage in some countries. This chapter will examine trends in enrollment rates and gender ratios with the most current data available.[3] Additionally, the chapter will discuss the effect of enrollment rates on participation of male and female students, particularly at secondary and tertiary levels of education, and the implications of those rates for gender equity.

Preschool enrollment

Progress has been sluggish on early childhood care and development across the globe, and has virtually collapsed in some countries of the former Soviet Union.[4] Since 1989, preschool enrollments have halved in Albania, Moldova, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan, and the Caucasus (Armenia, Azerbaijan, and Georgia), and have decreased almost fivefold in the Central Asian republics of Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, and Tajikistan (see appendix E). On the one hand, decreas-

ing preschool enrollment was connected to the closure of many kindergartens as a result of the transfer of financial responsibility from state enterprises and farms to local budgets. Given rigid budget deficits during the transition period, local authorities were often unable to assume the new costs related to preschool education provision. On the other hand, kindergartens became increasingly unaffordable to the majority of families due to rising preschool education fees, falling wages, and increasing unemployment. Overall, evidence suggests that major reductions in preschool enrollments have had a differential effect on girls. In particular, the latest data from national statistical agencies indicates that there are significant differences in the percentages of girls and boys enrolled in preschool programs, including a notable 28 percent in Tajikistan (see table 1).

TABLE 1. Preschool Enrollment by Gender (% of all children enrolled)

Country	Year	Female	Male	Difference
Albania	2000	51%	49%	-2%
Estonia	2001	48.4%	51.6%	3.2%
Ukraine	2000	47.9%	52.1%	4.2%
Armenia	2000	52.3%	47.7%	4.6%
FR Yugoslavia	2000	47.4%	52.6%	5.2%
Uzbekistan	2000	47%	53%	6%
Azerbaijan	2000	46.6%	53.3%	6.7%
Tajikistan	1998	36%	64%	28%

Source: Data from national statistical agencies.

The lack of access to early childhood care has multiple effects: on children, on school systems, and on parents, particularly mothers. Children entering primary school with no preparation face greater social and academic hurdles, and are less ready to make the learning gains in primary grades that can increase their academic success in higher grades.[5] Primary school teachers are heavily impacted by the lack of preschools because a larger proportion of their student body requires lower order skill development. This demands changes in curriculum and pedagogy to accommodate a changing student population. Teachers rarely have time or materials to make such adjustments. Parents whose children do not attend preschool must care for young children at home. Often, mothers carry this responsibility in addition to other work responsibilities. As a consequence, the lack of access to preschool for young children creates gender inequity for adults.

Basic education enrollment

Overall, many countries in the region have succeeded in providing the most basic form of gender equity in education—equal basic education enrollment of boys and girls—often in very difficult situations. Data shows consistently high enrollment rates in basic education in most countries in CEE, SEE, and the fSU, with the exception of Central Asia (Tajikistan, Turkmenistan), Caucasus (Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia), as well as Albania, Croatia, and Russia (see appendix C).[6] Although enrollment rates fell below 90 percent in these countries, reductions seem to have occurred across both gender groups in all cases, with the notable exceptions of Tajikistan and Azerbaijan (see appendix D).[7] Undoubtedly, the maintenance of compulsory, free primary education has been vital in ensuring gender equality in primary education enrollments. At noncompulsory levels of education, however, there is evidence of emerging gender gaps in preschool, secondary, and higher education enrollments.

Secondary education enrollment

According to UNESCO data (2002), enrollment in secondary school shows gender parity in many countries, including the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Romania, Lithuania, Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, and Turkmenistan.[8] In several countries, gender gaps in secondary school enrollment are concerning. On the one hand, disparities favoring boys are evident in Macedonia, Bulgaria, Belarus, Armenia, Tajikistan, and Uzbekistan. On the other hand, disparities favoring girls emerge in some countries of the former Yugoslavia, the Baltics, and the western Commonwealth of Independent States (see appendix F).

Disadvantage for girls. Gender disparities favoring boys in upper-secondary enrollments have become widespread. Of the countries included in this study, there is a 2-3 percent gender gap between male and female gross enrollment rates in Macedonia, Bulgaria, and Belarus, 11-12 percent in Uzbekistan and Tajikistan, and 21 percent in Armenia (see appendix F). In Tajikistan, the situation for girls is very serious. A gender gap has been developing steadily since the beginning of the 1990s. In the 10th grade of secondary school, for example, the difference between female and male enrollment constitutes 22 percent, whereas in the 1st grade it is only 4 percent.[9] A sharp drop in the proportion of girls in school after the 9th grade appears to be directly related to a reduction in the period of compulsory education. In 1993, the Education Law increased the total period of secondary education to 11 years, but crucially, reduced compulsory education to nine years. Prior to the change in the law, just over half of all upper-secondary students were girls. Afterwards, the proportion of girls declined to below 40 percent. When upper-secondary education became optional, girls left the school system in large numbers.[10] This example shows how important it is to analyze policies in advance for their implications for gender equity. Policies can have unintended negative consequences, particularly in situations where societies and education systems are already under strain.

Disadvantage for boys. One of the most visible impacts of the transition period on youth has been the pressure on boys to leave school. Of the countries included in this study, there emerged a 2-3 percent gender gap favoring girls in Albania, Croatia, the former Yugoslavia, Estonia, Latvia, Moldova, Kyrgyzstan, Slovakia, and Slovenia; and a 4-5 percent gender gap in Russia and Ukraine (see appendix F).[11] Given the economic hardships of the transition period, boys either drop out, or are pulled out by parents to earn money. In some areas, boys leave to help parents with agriculture, stockbreeding, or construction work. In Albania, the majority of boys go abroad, mainly to Greece or Italy. Some poor families have prioritized their daughters' education, sending boys abroad to work so they could at least afford to keep their daughters at school. Such parents explained that they saw education as their daughters' only chance to obtain employment, while boys had more options.[12]

> "The difficult economic situation and high unemployment rates, especially among the youth, have [ruined boys'] expectations and forced them to seek a way out by emigrating wherever they can find better chances for employment."
>
> *Student in Bushat, Albania*

Tertiary (university) education enrollments

During the 1990s, tertiary education enrollments increased across the region. By the end of the decade, average enrollment rates exceeded 30 percent in Central Europe, the Baltic states, and the western CIS. Similarly, higher education enrollment rates rose from below 10 percent to over 20 percent in SEE and slowly increased in the Caucasus.[13] The Central Asian republics of Uzbekistan and Turkmenistan were the only countries to see a steady decrease in higher education enrollments. In Turkmenistan, for example, higher education enrollment decreased dramatically from 10.2 percent in 1989 to 3.9 percent in 1999 (see appendix G). Throughout the region, there has been a steady trend towards feminization of higher education. The only exceptions have been observed in Tajikistan, Uzbekistan, and Azerbaijan, where the trend has been the reverse.

Feminization of higher education institutions throughout the region. During the 1990s, higher education institutions became increasingly feminized. This striking trend has been particularly evident in Central Europe, the former Yugoslavia, South Eastern Europe, the Baltic states, and the western CIS. For example, a difference of more than 15 percent in gross enrollment ratios between female and male students has been recorded in Bulgaria, Estonia,

Lithuania, Poland, Russia, and Slovenia. In Latvia, this difference reached 25 percent in the 1998/1999 academic year (see appendix H). The reasons behind this phenomenon are difficult to trace, especially because research on the gendered aspects of the school environment is still lacking. On a hypothetical level, however, there exist several explanations. First, male students may prefer to study in evening schools or vocational/technical institutions instead of universities in order to expedite the receipt of their diplomas/qualifications, which would allow them to join the labor market sooner. Second, girls may make more effort to enter higher education institutions. For example, a recent Hungarian study revealed that significantly more female students participated in academic contests during their secondary school years, had better grades, and acquired more cultural capital than male students.[14] Third, women may prevail in those higher education establishments that give pedagogical or humanitarian education, while men dominate in academic programs related to governance, finance, and banking. Finally, feminization of higher education may indicate an early effort by female students to compensate for the gender-based hidden or explicit discrimination in their future fieldwork.[15]

Disadvantage for female students in Central Asia and the Caucasus. In some countries of Central Asia and the Caucasus, attitudes regarding women's roles in society grew more conservative during the transition period. For women, this means a reassertion of a more traditional role of caring for the family and rearing children, which undoubtedly affects girls' education opportunities. In Uzbekistan, for example, more than 25 percent of girls do not continue education after they reach working age. Of all higher education students there, women constitute only 37.8 percent.[16] In Tajikistan, women constitute approximately 25 percent of all students, uncovering a growing differential between young men and women.[17] Overall, the education level of women in these countries is strongly influenced by their reproductive load (e.g., the largest numbers of children are born to women in their 20s).[18]

Participation

Enrollment statistics indicate school participation rates to a certain extent. However, for a complete assessment of participation, continued attendance (i.e., retention) must also be considered. It is highly possible that in many education systems gender gaps in attendance are greater than they appear from enrollment rates. As economic conditions decline for families in parts of the region, more children will drop out of school because of school costs and/or to contribute to the family income. In Azerbaijan, for example, only 60-70 percent of enrolled pupils attend school on any given day.[19] In Tajikistan, 86.3 percent of primary school children and 88.3 percent of secondary school students regularly attend school.[20] Although most official data do not reveal serious problems with school attendance, there are reasons to believe that this is not so in reality. One of the main reasons is the use of outdated data collection mechanisms for school attendance

and dropout. For example, schools in most former Soviet countries use a class journal as the main instrument of documenting student attendance. However, not all absences are registered in class journals for several reasons. First, some teachers simply neglect their direct responsibilities. Second, teachers may fear being reprimanded by school authorities for having high nonattendance levels in their classes. Third, false reporting is commonly used by school authorities in an attempt to decrease actual nonattendance cases.

Risk Factors for School Nonparticipation

The disparities between girls' and boys' enrollment rates are often concentrated within vulnerable population groups and can occur within these groups even in countries that do not have gender gaps in overall enrollments. Children from socially or economically disadvantaged groups are more likely to experience gender-based disadvantage as well. Poverty is often associated with consequences of military conflicts, which have been a part of transition. Other postconflict factors include refugee status, immigration, internal displacement, disability, and foreign status, which in turn intersect with gender and education. How a child's gender interacts with other factors affecting school participation is a complex question. Gender does not affect participation in a uniform way, but depends on specific local circumstances. Economic and social disadvantage appears to disproportionately affect girls' participation in education. The growth of inequalities in society is therefore likely to lead to increasing gender inequity in education systems. There is a challenge here for education policymakers to consider the impact of their reforms on disadvantaged groups, as well as how the intersection of gender with other forms of disadvantage can negatively affect students. The three strongest factors placing boys and girls at risk of nonenrollment and nonparticipation in school are poverty, rural living, and minority status.

Poverty

The costs of participating in education have increased substantially during the transition. There has been an increasing reliance on families' contributions to finance the education system. At the same time poverty has increased. The consequence for some families is that they cannot meet the costs of education, having to concentrate instead on maximizing their short-term earnings. These pressures have led to declines in overall enrollments in a number of education systems. They have had a disproportionate effect, however, on girls' school participation in Central Asia and the Caucasus, and boys' participation in the former Yugoslavia and South Eastern Europe. In Tajikistan, for example, poverty affects 80 percent of the population and is regarded as the most significant factor preventing girls from attending school.[21] In a 2002 survey, 68 percent of parents considered family poverty and the increased costs of education as the primary reason for girls' nonattendance.[22] Therefore, it is unsurprising that Tajikistan has the most serious gender gap problem.

When financial resources are strained, parents often choose which child to educate on the basis of gender rather than aptitude.[23] There are a number of reasons why parents generally consider it less affordable to educate their daughters than their sons. In some cases, it is a rational response to the lack of economic opportunities available for women, although, as we saw in the previous discussion, the same reason could lead to a reverse gender gap. But it also reflects conservative ideas within families about women's roles and the value of educating girls. A survey in Tajikistan found that 57 percent of parents "absolutely agree" that it is more important to educate boys rather than girls, explaining that "school payments for boys are a good investment in the future."[24] These ideas have gained ground during the transition as a reaction to the imposed egalitarian values of the communist system. Similar findings have been reported by the World Bank:

> Gender influences the decisions taken in poor families concerning the education of their girls and boys—there are examples from the region both for favoring boys' and girls' education. Evidence suggests that if the cost of schooling affects the demand for education it would be through gender discrimination.[25]

To eliminate gender gaps in school enrollment and attendance, it is important to involve parents and community leaders in addressing the underlying assumptions that promote boys' education over that of girls. Steps also need to be taken to overcome the practical barriers to attendance for girls and boys from low-income households. Families now face much higher costs for items such as textbooks and supplies, and increasingly for additional payments to teachers. Policymakers need to consider the impact of these additional costs on access to education and how to ensure that the efforts to maximize resources available for education do not lead to gender discrimination.

Rural living

Girls from rural areas are experiencing particular difficulties in participating in education. There are gender gaps in enrollment and attendance in rural areas in Albania, Azerbaijan, Romania, and Tajikistan.[26] In Tajikistan, a quarter of all girls from rural areas do not attend school. In Romania, the dropout rate is higher for girls from rural areas than for boys.[27] Rural girls' participation seems to be affected by a combination of traditional and newly emerging factors. Families in rural areas often face additional costs for transport to school or fees for accommodation for pupils who board. This exacerbates the existing problems arising from rural poverty. In Albania, there is a limited number of scholarships available to cover boarding fees; however, these go predominantly to boys.[28]

Conservative attitudes about appropriate gender roles, which tend to be more prevalent in rural areas, negatively impact girls' education.[29] Parents from rural areas are more likely to regard

boys' education as more important than girls' education. In Romania, for example, poverty and outdated attitudes about girls' social roles are cited as the main reasons for school nonattendance or dropout by girls from large families, particularly in rural areas and in Romani communities. Furthermore, in rural areas of Albania and Tajikistan it is not uncommon for poor families to endorse the early marriage of girls to lighten the family's economic burden. In these circumstances, the early marriage (at age 15 or 16) becomes a reason to leave school.[30]

There are practical measures that can be undertaken to ensure that girls' access to education in rural areas is not limited by real or perceived risks to their safety and social reputation. Plans for consolidations of rural schools need to be analyzed for their impact on girls' schooling. Official school transport services, satellite schools in local communities, and improved security can all lessen the impact of school closures on girls. Involving parents and communities in decisions about local education provision can also have a positive effect on girl's participation.

Minority status

As with the other forms of disadvantage already mentioned, members of disadvantaged minorities are more likely to suffer gender-based disadvantage. For example, Romani populations of all countries in the region face tremendous socioeconomic discrimination. Enrollment rates for Romani children are substantially lower than the national average, indicating barriers to access and participation in education. Further, Romani women have significantly lower levels of education than Romani men do (see table 2).[31] The intersection of minority status, gender, and education in countries in transition requires further exploration. One of the under-researched areas is the negative effect on boys' and girls' school participation as a result of the introduction of the majority language as the first language of instruction.

TABLE 2. Educational Level of Adult Romani Population by Gender in Romania (1992)

Extent of education	Females	Males	Total
No schooling	28.7 %	14.5%	22%
Incomplete primary	6.5%	4.1%	5.3%
Completed primary	24.8%	26.4%	25.2%
Incomplete secondary	8.3%	9.2%	8.5%
Complete secondary	29.2%	38.7%	33.7%

Source: Zamfir and Zamfir, 1993.

Romani girls' access to education tends to be limited by their communities' traditionalist attitudes to women's status.[30] Romani girls tend to drop out of school earlier than boys because of their substantial household and family responsibilities. Girls may also be married early or bear children before the age of 15.[31] It is likely that the problems identified in Romania

exist in other countries with significant Romani populations. Romani women activists from Central and Eastern Europe cite education as the primary concern of Romani women. If they are to be successful, programs to improve disadvantaged minorities' participation in education need to take account of the specific factors that affect girls' participation. The UN Committee on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination specifically recommends this approach in relation to Romani girls. It recommends that education programs, projects, and campaigns should take into account Romani girls' and women's disadvantaged position.

Academic Achievement

After reviewing the situation facing access, enrollments, and participation, it is important to report on the achievement obtained by students in school. Given the general scarcity and inaccessibility of gender-disaggregated data on academic achievement in the countries of CEE, SEE, and the fSU, the findings of this report are based on the results of international studies recently conducted in the region, including the Third International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) and Monitoring of Learning Achievement (MLA).[34] Overall, the results of the international studies present a mixed picture of academic achievement among girls and boys in the region. On the one hand, both TIMSS and MLA studies showed that there were no statistically significant differences in test results among 4th grade girls and boys. In fact, the MLA study revealed that girls scored higher on all aspects of the test (literacy, numeracy, and life skills) in Kazakhstan and Tajikistan. On the other hand, however, TIMSS results demonstrated an increase in gender differences favoring boys in higher grades.

According to TIMSS (1995), the gender differences in mathematics and science widened significantly at the upper grades and the last year of secondary school. Thus, while males in the fourth grade had higher achievement than females in only some countries (Czech Republic, Hungary in math/science, and Slovenia in science), by the eighth year of secondary school gender differences in performance were pervasive, with males having significantly higher achievement than females in both curriculum areas in almost every participating CEE, SEE, and fSU country (see appendix I). Furthermore, the results by gender for the final year of secondary school revealed that males had significantly higher average achievement than females in all countries of the region except Hungary. Since both boys and girls demonstrated similar increases across countries from 1995 to 1999, the average gender difference remained essentially the same (TIMSS, 1999).

There is a strong need for additional data collection on academic achievement across subject areas for all grades. Only when we can gather and analyze outcomes data can we fully assess the importance of gender sensitivity in activities such as academic tracking and career goals for both girls and boys.

Conclusion

For the countries in this region, the reemergence of gender gaps in enrollments marks a step backwards. It makes it harder to achieve equitable education systems or meet international commitments for ensuring education for all. The girls and boys affected will be disadvantaged for their entire school careers and beyond.

Countries have largely succeeded in maintaining high and equal enrollment rates at the primary level, often in very difficult circumstances. However, this equality can mask growing problems of gender inequity in school participation at other levels. Gender gaps have developed in a number of countries, particularly at the noncompulsory levels of preschool, secondary school, and tertiary education. Significantly, while girls' enrollment and participation is usually lower than boys', the reverse trend was identified in some areas, underscoring the importance of country- and context-specific data collection and analysis. Economic and social disadvantage appears to have a disproportionate impact on girls' participation in education. Poverty, rural living, and minority status are, therefore, likely to lead to increasing gender inequities in education systems.

The evidence here shows that past success in achieving equity in enrollments does not ensure that education systems in this region are free from gender inequity in access and participation now. In some cases the social and economic pressures of transition and the impact of new education policies has led to a reemergence of gender gaps in participation. In all countries, education policymakers need to consider how to make commitments to equity in access and participation a reality.

3. Gender Equity in the School and Classroom

Equitable education systems prepare girls and boys equally to be productive and empowered citizens. It is merely a start to get children inside the school. Once there, the education that they receive must be free of gender-based stereotypes, biased expectations, and discrimination. It should also equip all children with the knowledge and skills to overcome the barriers to their full participation in society. As a result, both girls and boys should be able to enjoy economic and social opportunities on an equal basis.

Ensuring gender equity in the teaching and learning process is a major challenge for education policymakers, curriculum planners, teachers, and teacher-trainers throughout the world. Education systems in many countries provide examples of curricula and teaching materials that reinforce stereotypes, of teachers with biased expectations and other means through which, perhaps unwittingly, gender inequity in society is promoted through the teaching and learning process. Although there is generally a lack of information regarding gender aspects of schooling in the region, the reviewed reports, studies, curriculum plans, and textbooks point to problems that require further investigation.[1] This chapter will discuss the emergence of gender stereotypes in different aspects of schooling, including:

- Textbooks and school curricula;
- Teacher attitudes;
- The overall school environment; and
- School leadership.

Transmitting Gendered Messages through Textbooks and Curricula

Textbooks

Textbooks play a special role in education systems in CEE, SEE, and the fSU. They remain almost the only tools for transmitting the curriculum. Consequently, their presentation of gender is particularly powerful and significant. Based on textbook analysis conducted in some countries of the region,[2] it has become evident that school textbooks and teaching materials transmit very strong messages about what it means to be male or female. The presentations of

genders in textbooks are problematic in two ways. First, they promote rigid gender roles, or gender-based stereotypes. Second, the nature of the roles presented disadvantage women.

In most countries in CEE, SEE, and the fSU, textbooks have been considerably reviewed after the fall of socialism. However, these new textbooks present men and women as having different stereotypical gender roles. Within the workplace, home, or social sphere there are distinct roles and activities depicted for men and women, boys and girls. There are very few images and examples of men and women engaged in the same activities. In particular, women are predominantly portrayed undertaking domestic activities at home. Domestic work is presented as their primary responsibility, which defines them as women. For example, Polish textbooks usually present women as mothers and housewives in family roles, doing housework.[3] Similarly, Estonian textbooks contain traditional gender stereotypes by portraying girls and women doing things at home and taking care of children, while very rarely depicting boys and men cooking, cleaning, or taking care of children.[4] In Albania, Hungary, Kazakhstan, and Tajikistan, the majority of textbooks do not portray women outside of their home environments.[5] In Azerbaijan, one textbook overtly condemns women who work outside of the home by stating:

> In modern families there is a dangerous decrease in the number of children. Among the main causes: urban way of living, the fact that women work too, higher levels of education.[6]

Learning to Be a Woman in Albania: How Mira Grew Up

Mira wanted to grow up and tried several things such as dressing in her grandmother's clothes and wearing her mother's shoes but all her family laughed at her. One day she cleaned the entire house and washed all the dishes. Coming home her mother happily said, "Look, our daughter has grown up."

Summary of a Lesson from Albania

There are very few examples of men involved in domestic activity. The result is that domestic work, including the care of children, is presented as women's work and inappropriate for men.[7] This legitimizes the "double burden" of work inside and outside of the home, which is a limiting factor on women's career prospects. In separate surveys in Romania[8] and Poland,[9] more than two-thirds of those polled thought that the burden of women's home responsibilities accounted for their poor representation in higher-level positions. This overemphasis on women's unpaid domestic work presents an inaccurate picture of their contribution to the economic life of countries. It also reinforces the commonly held view that women are more dispensable employees, a view that has contributed to the higher unemployment of women in the region.

Ideas of what constitutes appropriate gender roles extend into the depiction of career choices for girls and boys. In most countries of the region, textbooks present boys and girls with an artificially limited selection of occupations regarded as appropriate for their gender. Both boys and girls may suffer if they consider only occupations regarded as appropriate for their gender, rather than basing their choices on their needs, preferences, and aptitude. However, the impact is much more serious for girls, because they are usually associated with low-paid and low-prestige occupations. For example, primary school textbooks in Romania depict women as "school teachers, villagers, fruit or flower sellers, while men are viewed as astronauts, policemen, physicians, actors, conductors, and masons . . ."[10] Thus, girls are oriented toward "easy and clean" professions from an early age, with well-defined responsibilities that would facilitate and allow a "normal" family life. Boys, however, are guided to focus on technical and "strong profitable careers" that would enable them to support a family in the future.[11]

Cooking and Computers: Gender Segregation in Polish Primary Schools

Girls in Poland are significantly disadvantaged in their access to Information and Communication Technology (ICT) skills. The number of girls who learn computer skills is considerably lower than that of boys. In the worst cases, computer science classes are organized for boys and domestic science classes are organized for girls. In the majority of schools, practical classes are organized separately for boys and girls. Boys study metalwork and carpentry, girls study cooking and needlework.

Woycicka and Dominiczak, 1998

The problem with such representations is as much about what is absent as what is present. Students see very limited, traditional, stereotyped ideas about what it means to be a man or a woman. These messages influence students and limit their aspirations artificially. Reformed curricula should include standards regarding the representation of gender and for gender equity. These standards should be supported by guidelines for textbook authors and in the criteria for textbook evaluation.

Curriculum content

Educational equity demands more than just textbooks and school curricula without discriminatory content. Curricula must also include the knowledge and skills that students need to overcome the barriers to gender equality. Though progress has been made during the transition period, evidence from the region suggests that curriculum content does not sufficiently address

the barriers to the region's women enjoying full economic and social opportunities and to women and men living equitably together. These barriers include discriminatory attitudes, the double burden of work in both public and private spheres, reproductive health issues, the commercial sexual exploitation of women, and domestic violence.

The introduction of critical thinking skills into curricula during the transition period has been an important element in equipping students with the ability to recognize and challenge gender inequities in society. In addition, new courses in human rights and civics education have been introduced. One of the most innovative programs addressing gender issues in education has been "Empowering Education," which is inclusive of different learning styles, encourages active learning, and helps children to improve decision-making and critical-thinking skills.[12] Furthermore, it teaches children to become better at collaborating, to improve their self-esteem, and educates them to be sensitive to questions of gender and diversity. However, the Empowering Education Program is unique and still represents the exception rather than the rule. Overall, there is no evidence that newly developed programs and courses discuss women's human rights and civic roles on a regular basis.[13] This is a missed opportunity to challenge gender inequity.

Educating for Equity: The Empowering Education Program

The Empowering Education Program was started by Olena Suslova and her colleagues in Ukraine in 1996, in response to the needs of their own children for gender-sensitive human rights education. This did not exist in the Ukrainian educational system. Since then, the program has been expanded to include secondary schools and universities in Ukraine, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Lithuania, Moldova, Tajikistan, and Uzbekistan. The director of the largest school in the Lviv region of Ukraine said: "Empowering Education covers problems relevant for youth today, which are important because earlier no one paid any attention to them. It prepares young people to become strong adults and gives them concrete tools to deal with important problems such as domestic violence and discrimination."

More information is available at: http://www.empedu.civicua.org.

There is a range of life skills that could be taught in schools to enable girls to overcome disadvantage and help boys and girls to live equitably together. For example, life skills curricula aim to equip girls and boys with the capacity to run their own lives. They teach them to negotiate their personal relationships, cope with the hazards of alcohol, drugs, and sexual activity,

and manage their personal affairs. While there are elements of life skills curricula being taught in all of the countries covered in this report, there is no evidence of a systematic approach to their teaching.

Of particular significance in relation to gender equity is the failure to provide adequate sex education for boys and girls. For women in particular, the knowledge and the skills to control their sexual lives are vital to improving their lives. Sex education, however, is often a taboo subject in the majority of the countries in the region. The few attempts to introduce sex education in secondary schools have been hindered by resistance from teachers and parents and by inadequate teacher training.[14] In Poland, sex education was withdrawn in 1998 and replaced with "Pro Family" education, which raises serious concerns as to whether the new curriculum provides young women and men with the information they need to manage their sexuality and fertility. For example, one book approved by the Polish ministry of education states:

> When will people finally become aware that fertility means health? Contraceptives—which destroy fertility—destroy people's health.[15]

Teacher Attitudes

It is well known that teachers' attitudes and the way they interact with students can have a profound impact on both girls' and boys' academic performance and their attitudes and values. Even when teachers believe that they treat all their students in the same way, research indicates that they typically interact differently (and often inequitably) with their male and female students.[16] Studies undertaken in the countries covered in this report point to similar problems existing in the region.

There is evidence of teachers treating boys and girls differently and applying different standards of behavior for each sex. In Tajikistan, teachers are stricter with girls than with boys. For example, many actions that are considered natural for boys are not permitted for girls.[17] Similarly, a World Bank study[18] in Albania highlighted parental concerns that the teachers treated boys and girls differently as a result of gender-based prejudices. One parent remarked, "Some teachers communicate differently with boys and girls. It is due to the lack of communication that many boys skip classes or drop out of school."

There is also evidence that some teachers have stereotyped attitudes about the relative intelligence of boys and girls. The same study by the World Bank in Albania revealed a widely held prejudice that boys are more intelligent than girls and that girls' academic achievement is only a result of their hard work. As one teacher from Kamza explained, "Girls work harder than boys do. They are more systematic than boys because they have to bridge the gaps in their level of intelligence." Similarly, a survey of teacher attitudes in Tajikistan[19] found that nearly 20 percent of teachers thought that girls and boys should follow separate educational programs. There

are reports of similar attitudes amongst teachers in Ukraine: "Education in Ukraine is based on gender differentiating methods of teaching. Such education emphasizes existing differences between boys and girls, husbands and wives."[20]

Furthermore, some teachers make gender-biased assumptions about career options for girls and boys. According to research carried out in Romania,[21] teachers see boys' and girls' potential occupations differently. More than three-quarters of the teachers surveyed made career recommendations based on gender-biased assumptions. In particular, well-paid or prestigious jobs—such as becoming a broker, financier, computer software or hardware specialist, politician or airline pilot—were appropriate for boys. Poorly paid and less prestigious jobs—such as becoming a nurse, social assistant, hairdresser, flight attendant, secretary, public servant, or babysitter—were appropriate for girls. Combined, prejudiced gender attitudes among teachers have an adverse effect on both girls' and boys' academic performances and their attitudes and values.

School Environment

The overall school environment is important in ensuring gender equity in the classroom for two reasons. First, it affects both girls' and boys' learning achievements. Second, it provides an example of the adult world of work. Therefore, the overall school environment can shape children's perception of men's and women's appropriate roles at work and their personal aspirations.

As is the case elsewhere around the world, schools in CEE, SEE, and the fSU are becoming increasingly feminized environments. In all of the countries in the region the majority of primary school teachers are women and in most of the countries, the majority of secondary school teachers are women (see appendix J). However, trends differ from country to country. Female teachers constitute more than 90 percent of all primary school teachers in such countries as Armenia, Belarus, Bulgaria, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Lithuania, Russia, Slovakia, Slovenia, and Ukraine. They constitute between 75 percent and 90 percent of all primary school teachers in Azerbaijan, the Czech Republic, Croatia, Estonia, Hungary, Poland, Romania, and Uzbekistan (see table 3).

In most countries, the percentage of female teachers has increased during the transition period. Between 1991 and 2000, for example, the proportion of female secondary school teachers in Albania doubled to 52 percent.[22] In Azerbaijan, the proportion of female primary teachers grew rapidly during the 1990s to reach 79 percent in 1998.[23] One reason for this is the declining status of teaching as a profession and the decrease in teacher salaries. It results in women being relegated to the poorly paid education profession.

The decline in the prestige of the teaching profession has been accompanied by falling real wages. The fall in wages for teachers is largely responsible for male teachers' exodus from the classroom. In a number of countries in this report, teachers' salaries are no longer sufficient for basic subsistence. Also, salaries for teachers are very low compared with those available in the pri-

vate sector. In Romania, for example, public sector wages, including those in education, are a third lower than the average for the economy as a whole.[24] In Kazakhstan, teachers' salaries are among the lowest paying jobs, constituting approximately 28 percent of an average salary in the financial sector, 47.7 percent in industry, 52.5 percent in construction, 55.4 percent in transportation, and 77.4 percent in trade.[25] In Uzbekistan, the level of remuneration in the education sector constitutes 87.8 percent of the average salary in the economic sector, 44 percent in the industrial sector, 68.5 percent in the housing, communal, and consumer services sector, and 38.6 percent in financial, credit, and insurance institutions.[26] The effect of declining teacher salaries on the "feminization" of the teaching profession is clearly explained in this report from Azerbaijan:

> There are cultural expectations in Azerbaijan that a male is head of the family and as such is expected to provide for the family . . . Many males are forced to leave teaching to pursue other more highly paid careers. Among women, teaching is seen as a career that fits well with raising a family since a choice can be made between teaching a single (half day) or a double shift (full day).[27]

The withdrawal of men from the teaching profession means that schools are increasingly becoming single-sex teaching environments. In interesting exceptions, men occupy teaching positions at an equal (and growing) rate to women in Albania, Moldova, the former Yugoslavia, Macedonia, and Tajikistan. In Tajikistan, for example, female teachers constitute 60 percent of all primary school teachers and 47.5 percent of all secondary school teachers. However, equal representation of men and women in the teaching profession does not necessarily mean the achievement of gender equity in the case of Tajikistan, since teaching is one of the few stable jobs available to an increasingly unemployed and impoverished population. In this particular case, the "masculinization" of teaching has resulted in women returning to the domestic, unpaid sphere.

TABLE 3. Percentage of Female Teachers in Primary Schools

Percentage	Countries
Above 90%	Armenia, Belarus, Bulgaria, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Lithuania, Russia, Slovakia, Slovenia, Ukraine
Between 75% and 90%	Azerbaijan, Czech Republic, Croatia, Estonia, Hungary, Poland, Romania, Uzbekistan
Between 50% and 75%	Albania, Moldova, former Yugoslavia, Macedonia, Tajikistan

Source: All data from the World Bank's Genderstats (http://genderstats.worldbank.org/); data for Albania from the Statistical Office of Albania (1998); data for Poland from the Women's Rights Center, 2000; data for Tajikistan from the Ministry of Education (2000); data for Uzbekistan from the State Statistical Agency (2001)

Female Participation in School Leadership

In schools around the world, there is a stark gender divide between classroom teachers and school administrators; CEE, SEE, and the fSU are no exception. This is of particular concern, because students receive messages about gender roles simply by the way that adult jobs are distributed in schools. School hierarchies reinforce the idea that management is a male domain. In Uzbekistan, as in the majority of other countries in the region, the "traditional division of labor" implies that the majority (64.5 percent) of all teachers are women, whereas the majority (68.4 percent) of all school directors are male.[28] In Azerbaijan, the majority of men employed in education are school administrators and managers.[29] In Croatia, only 37 percent of women act as directors in elementary schools and 28 percent in secondary schools.[30]

Throughout most countries of the region, salary data indicate that men are more likely than women to be promoted in posts with higher salaries. In particular, female teachers' average gross salary is generally below the sector average.[31] In Romania, women teachers earn approximately 87 percent of what male teachers earn.[32] In Azerbaijan, they earn only 65 to 70 percent of what men do.[33] Given the legacy of centralized and hierarchical leadership in most schools in the region, decision making typically rests in the hands of male school directors. Consequently, this reduces women's empowerment and sends a powerful gendered message to students about leadership roles.

The Impact of Inequity: Gender Tracking in Upper-Secondary Education

The cumulative effect of gendered school practices, which was discussed in this chapter, can be seen in the patterns of subject choices among boys and girls at the upper-secondary level. Gender tracking is the rule, not the exception. The majority of students in upper-secondary education are enrolled in courses that are dominated by one sex. In Poland, the two biggest subject groupings are also the two most gender-segregated. In high schools, boys make up 82 percent of all students studying technical subjects, whereas girls make up 75 percent of all humanities students.[34] In vocational schools in Azerbaijan, nine subjects are dominated by girls and ten by boys. Only two have relatively even enrollments.[35]

The patterns of gender tracking reflect the explicit and implicit messages transmitted to girls to limit their career aspirations. The majority of girls are enrolled in subjects that lead to low-paid and low-prestige occupations, most noticeably in health and teacher-education courses. Among the students of secondary professional education institutions in Uzbekistan, for example, the majority of women study education (27.8 percent) and health protection, physical education, and sports (38.9 percent).[36] In Tajikistan, more than three-quarters of all secondary professional education students enrolled in education and health courses are girls.[37] In Romania, more than half of all girls enrolled in vocational schools are training to be teachers.[38] In Kazakhstan, only 3 percent of the students at Almaty State University's education department are male.[39]

Gender tracking in upper-secondary education is related not only to curricula choices as mentioned above. It is also a consequence of the education structure itself. Currently, vocational education is very specialized, and this specialization could have a negative impact on girls. The structure and curriculum of vocational education need to be reformed in all countries to become more general and consequently more open to both boys and girls.

Typically, boys are more likely to be enrolled in subjects leading to well-remunerated occupations. In Romania, boys dominate professional education, which leads them to dominate the labor market. Out of 11 specializations in professional education only three have a significant female enrollment.[40] In Azerbaijan, boys are more likely to continue their education in professional-technical schools, upgrading their technical skills and improving their job prospects.[41] In Uzbekistan, the majority of men study industry and construction, agriculture, economics, and law.[42] The gap between the future earning potentials for graduates of different specializations has widened significantly. Girls are particularly disadvantaged because so many are enrolled in subjects leading to jobs in the public sector. This means that women are bearing the economic brunt of transition and will continue to do so.

Conclusion

Schools have a significant impact on gender equity in society through school structure, curricula, textbooks and teaching materials, teacher attitudes, the overall atmosphere of the school, and leadership structures. Children develop their ideas about gender roles from a variety of sources, but the authority that accompanies formal education makes the information, ideas, and values transmitted particularly powerful.

There is evidence from all of the countries in the region that education systems contribute to the gender inequity that exists in societies. They do so through their school structure, curricula, teaching materials, teacher attitudes, and the power dynamics in schools. Textbooks and curricula replicate narrow and often outdated gender stereotypes through which women are represented primarily in the private sphere or in low-paid or low-prestige nurturing professions. Men are presented as having more options and shown in more prestigious roles. However, the absence of representations of men from the domestic sphere artificially excludes them from a full role in family life.

The curriculum often fails to teach the knowledge and skills that could help to reduce women's disadvantage. In addition, teachers' ignorance of gender issues leads to biased expectations about how boys and girls will perform academically. As a result of the decline in teachers' real wages and prestige, women have increasingly come to dominate the profession. In some cases, this means that boys lack male role models in schools. More generally, it means that women are associated in pupils' minds with poorly paid, low-prestige professions. Further, the dominance of men in positions of authority in schools reinforces women's subservient position within society.

The inequities identified in schools have a direct bearing on the life chances of girls and of boys. The cumulative effect of curricular, classroom, and policy messages translate into the concentration of girls in subjects that lead to poorly paid, low-prestige occupations, and contribute to the perpetuation of gender inequity in society.

4. Toward Gender Equity: Commitments in Education Policy

By 2000, all countries of Central and South Eastern Europe (CEE and SEE) and the former Soviet Union (fSU) had made commitments to advance gender equity by signing and ratifying such international human rights treaties as the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) (see appendix K), and the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) (see appendix L). Combined, these international human rights treaties aim to advance gender equality by expanding the opportunities available for both women and men, entailing broader benefits for children and society as a whole.

Whereas ratification of the ICESCR obliges states to ensure gender equality in the enjoyment of the overall economic, social, and cultural rights among men and women, CEDAW and CRC emphasize the importance of promoting gender equality in education. By ratifying CEDAW (1979), national governments have committed to taking "all appropriate measures" to ensure both women and men equal rights in education, including the provision of equal conditions for school access and academic achievement, the elimination of any stereotyped curricula, the reduction of female student dropout rates, and the provision of equal opportunities for career guidance, continuing education, and other activities. Similarly, by ratifying CRC (1989), states have taken responsibility to prepare children "for responsible life in a free society, in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes . . ." This chapter examines whether there has been a shift in national policy formulation, implementation, and monitoring in support of these international commitments.

Legal Commitments to Ensuring Gender Equality

Since 1989, the countries of the former socialist bloc have passed new constitutions and laws aimed at reforming the relationships between individuals, society, and the state. In principle, all newly adopted constitutions and laws, including education laws, provide for gender equality in compliance with the ratified human rights conventions. In fact, every single constitution mentions that the principle of equality between men and women is of the utmost importance and that discrimination based on sex is forbidden.[1] However, despite constitutional affirmations of gender equality, women do not actually have de facto equality in most of the countries in the region.[2] The primary reason is that there is no clear definition of discrimination in constitutions or laws, few implementation structures, and hardly any mechanisms to strengthen the prosecution of discriminatory actions.[3]

Although the newly adopted education laws, regulations, and the overall reform goals underscore the importance of ensuring equal education rights for all children, they are usually restricted to generalized commitments to equality. In particular, most education laws state that discrimination based on sex is forbidden. Yet, it remains unclear what exactly is forbidden since there are no definitions on what discrimination entails.[4] For example, the following generalized statements illustrate commonly declared national commitments to education equality made by different governments across the region:

> The citizens of the Republic of Albania enjoy equal rights to study at all levels of education defined by this law, regardless of the social status, nationality, language, sex, religion, race, political beliefs, health condition, and economic level. (Albania's Pre-University Education Law, 1995)

> Citizens have the right to education. . . . No discrimination or privileges based on considerations of race, nationality, sex, ethnic or social origin, religion or social status will be permitted. (Bulgaria's Public Education Act, 1999)

> The right to education is guaranteed regardless of nationality, sex, race, social origin and status, political or religious affiliation, criminal record. (Moldova's Education Law, 1995)

> Men and women shall have equal rights, in particular, regarding education, employment and promotion. . . . Public authorities shall ensure universal and equal access to education for citizens. To this end, they shall establish and support the systems of financial and organizational assistance for pupils and students. The conditions of such assistance shall be specified by statute. (Poland's Constitution, 1997)

> The right to education is provided to *all citizens* of the Republic of Tajikistan. It does not depend on origin, sex, language, race and nationality, social and property status, sphere of occupation, location, persuasions, religion and attitudes to religion. (Tajikistan's Education Law, 2000)

Although the existence of legal provisions for equal rights to education is an important accomplishment in itself, it does not necessarily ensure the achievement of gender equity in the education sphere. Indeed, the evidence of the emerging gender inequities, which have been extensively discussed in the previous chapters, points to the fact that the generalized commitments made by governments in CEE, SEE, and the fSU are rarely fully implemented in practice, and insufficient to guarantee an equitable reality. Furthermore, governments across the region are under external and internal pressure to cut resources for education, which reinforces all dimensions of a gender gap in education.

Gender Considerations in Policymaking and Implementation

Despite the legal declarations, education policymakers across the region have repeatedly failed to effectively turn the declared international and national commitments into practical policies to address the emerging gender inequities. This section examines whether, and to what extent, gender considerations have been integrated in education policymaking, implementation, and monitoring. In particular, it identifies the achievements, progress, and problems of individual countries, as well as policies and strategies that are making a difference in the following areas:

- Education policies addressing the issues of gender equity
- Monitoring of education policy implementation
- The role of preservice and in-service teacher education institutions in policy implementation
- The role of NGOs in education policy formulation and implementation
- The role of international organizations in promoting gender equity in education

Lack of concrete policies and action plans

Achievement of gender equity in education requires formulation of concrete policies and action plans to ensure implementation of international commitments and constitutional provisions made by the governments of CEE, SEE, and the fSU during the last decade. However, evidence shows that generalized commitments to gender equity in education are rarely translated into concrete education policies and, therefore, remain difficult to enforce in practice. For example, it is commonly believed that the Polish Constitution does not discriminate against women in the education sphere. In particular, Article 70 states that "public authorities shall ensure universal and equal access to education for citizens" and that "education in public schools shall be free." However, public education institutions, particularly universities, often impose high tuition fees, leading to discrimination against women, because women on average earn less income than men. Given the inconsistency of governmental programs, policies, and internal regulations of various education institutions, constitutional provisions may remain "entirely fictional."[5]

Although gender considerations are generally absent from the education policymaking agendas of countries in the region,[6] there are a few exceptions to this trend. Some concrete policies and strategies are making a difference in the region, especially in the EU accession countries. For example, some EU accession countries (e.g., Bulgaria, Lithuania, Romania, and Slovenia)[7] have developed specific national legislation on equal opportunities for women and men. The Lithuanian Act on Equal Opportunities (1999) provides a clear definition of direct and indirect gender discrimination and presents a more elaborate explanation of the role of education institutions in ensuring gender equity for men and women. In particular, it states that "education institutions must ensure equal conditions for women and men" regarding: (1) admissions to vocational educational institutions, colleges, institutions of higher education, and

qualification improvement courses; (2) award of grants and student loans; and (3) the selection of curricula and knowledge assessment.[8]

Similarly, in 2002 the Slovenian government adopted an Act on Equal Opportunities for Women and Men (see appendix M) that includes a separate section on education and vocational training. In particular, the Act states that the Ministry of Education as well as other governmental bodies will ensure "equal treatment for women and men" through preparing state education programs, developing guidelines for schoolbooks and teaching materials, and introducing organizational innovations and new teaching methods. Currently, the Bulgarian and Estonian governments have begun to develop drafts of Equal Opportunities Acts, which will define direct and indirect discrimination, state the principle of equal opportunities for women and men in education, establish a national mechanism for ensuring equal opportunities for all, and put the responsibility on the state to monitor and improve gender issues. Given the more concrete and elaborate nature of these policy documents, the outlined gender equity goals, strategies, and activities are more likely to be implemented in practice.

In Central Asia, the government of Tajikistan has made a strong effort to address the deteriorating situation of women during the transition period by adopting the National Plan of Action to Improve the Situation of Women in the Republic of Tajikistan for the period of 1998–2005 (1998) and developing the State Program Main Directions of State Policies for Ensuring Equal Rights and Opportunities for Men and Women in Tajikistan for 2001–2010 (2001). Importantly, the State Program has identified education as one of the main priorities and proposed specific interventions, such as (1) establishing quotas for women in higher education establishments; (2) stimulating girls' education through granting stipends and financial assistance; (3) creating learning centers for young women with nongovernmental financial assistance; and (4) initiating discussion of gender issues in mass media to raise gender awareness and overcome gender stereotypes in the sphere of education.

Although the approval of the National Plan of Action and the State Program has been an encouraging step forward in addressing gender inequity in Tajikistan's education system, successful implementation of these initiatives will largely depend on the availability of adequate financial resources and implementation mechanisms. Already in the first year of the implementation of the State Program, for example, it has been observed that the number of female students in higher education institutions has not increased sufficiently for several reasons. First, the amount of financial assistance provided to young women has been so small that it could hardly cover the expenses necessary to continue studies in higher education institutions (e.g., purchase textbooks, pay for accommodation and food). Second, young women from rural areas have been continuously discouraged from entering higher education institutions, which are primarily located in urban areas, because of increasingly deteriorating and unsafe conditions in dormitories. In other words, successful implementation of the policies will depend not only on adopting new legislation, but also on changing the existing *conditions* that preclude women from continuing in higher education.

Information Gathering and Monitoring Mechanisms

In all countries of CEE, SEE, and the fSU, gender equity reforms have been impeded by the lack of adequate education management information systems (EMIS) to ensure effective monitoring of reform implementation. Timely and accurate information on education system performance is important for several reasons. It can be used to diagnose problems, ensure the efficient use of resources, and monitor the implementation of policies. There is a whole range of gender disaggregated statistics that are necessary to ensure gender equity in all aspects of education system performance, including data on enrollments, attendance, education spending, and access to inputs and outcomes. Education policies need to be analyzed in advance of implementation to assess their likely impact on the gender equity of education systems. Because in some countries gender inequities require special policy attention to girls or boys, such information systems serve to guide policymaking toward the most disadvantaged area or target group.

In addition to the lack of systematic, gender-disaggregated data-gathering, many local educators and officials lack training in how to analyze such statistical information. Analytical skills must be improved to ensure that information gathered from schools is used for both school improvement and policymaking. Dissemination of information is also lacking, as data is not always made available to education departments at local and regional levels.

The impact of policies on gender equity should also be monitored. The evidence from this region suggests that apparently gender-neutral policies can have a detrimental impact on equity in practice. Without access to adequate data, significant problems of inequity may go unnoticed. Given the historical experience with centralized policymaking, there may be an enduring mistrust of government such that teachers, administrators, and teacher educators pay limited attention to policies. In this situation, monitoring and implementation strategies become even more important.

Identifying and eliminating the particular barriers to girls' or boys' participation can have a significant positive impact on enrollment rates. There is a need to work closely with local communities and families to identify and address the causes of nonattendance (for example, community-EMIS implemented by Save the Children, UK and UNICEF in Central Asia). Examples of the kinds of initiatives that have been successful in improving girls' and boys' enrollment include (1) providing safe transport to schools in rural areas; (2) providing bursaries to pay for residential boarding fees for girls from rural areas; (3) adjusting the school year timetable to fit in with the farming year and other demands on students' time; and (4) providing financial incentives to families to enroll all of their children in school. Involving parents and the wider community more actively in schools can be particularly effective in increasing community support for the education of all children.

Involvement of Universities and Teacher Training Institutions

Universities and teacher training institutions can play an important role in formulating and implementing gender equity policies in the education sphere. First, gender studies programs at higher education institutions can make significant contributions to identifying gender inequities through research, conducting gender analysis of curricula, and developing gender-sensitive curricula relevant to the local context. Second, preservice teacher education institutions (pedagogical colleges, institutes, and universities) are instrumental in equipping future teachers with the necessary methods, skills, and attitudes to create equitable classroom practices in order to ensure equal education outcomes for all students. Finally, in-service teacher education institutions can increase the effectiveness and equity of classroom teaching through helping teachers understand gender-related research and increase their own gender-equitable classroom interactions. Combined, educators from these different institutions constitute an interest group that could play a significant role in future policy development in education, including gender-related policy. As such, educators should have a background on the gender situation in their country and have the opportunity to think constructively about how to improve it through policy. Universities and other teacher training institutions present an ideal place for such a process.

Gender studies programs in universities

During the 1990s, most countries in CEE, SEE, and the fSU established new gender studies programs at higher education institutions (see table 4). In most cases, however, these programs remain isolated from education departments, focusing exclusively on wider historical, political, economic, and sociological dimensions of gender equity issues. For example, the Youth Center of Gender Studies at Yerevan State University has focused on examining the role and place of Armenian women in politics, the economy, and the family by analyzing the Armenian economic situation, political trends, problems of unemployment, and religious views. Similarly, the Center for Gender Studies at the European Humanities University in Minsk has been offering such courses as "The Sociology of Gender," the "Gendered Aspects of Political Participation," and "Women and the Body in the Medieval Spirituality." In Lithuania, the Women's Studies Center at Vilnius University has been examining gender issues in history, philosophy, psychology, law, and literature. In other words, most gender studies programs have very specific academic orientations, which rarely, if ever, include research of gender equity issues in basic education. In is not surprising, therefore, that university-based gender studies programs are rarely engaged in policy formulation and implementation in the education area.

Preservice teacher education institutions

Although university-based gender studies programs are widely available throughout the region, they are rarely established within preservice teacher education institutions. According to OSI materials and the directory of the Women's/Gender Studies Association of Countries of

Transition,[9] only 11 of 25 countries in the region have gender studies programs at preservice teacher education institutions (see table 4). Given the lack of attention to gender issues in preservice teacher training institutions, it is not surprising that teachers carry gender stereotypes with them into classrooms. According to recent research conducted in Romania, preservice teacher education courses often reinforce gender stereotypes, to the detriment of both girls and boys:

> The graduates of (teacher training courses in upper-secondary schools and colleges) are encouraged to reproduce behaviors, mentalities and gender stereotypes, and not to imagine and try to induce changes at these levels. In the curricula of the teacher-training modules in the faculties and universities there is no specific course of lectures, or even a topic, addressing the gender perspective in teacher training.[10]

Currently, gender equity courses are only available in preservice teacher education institutions in Albania, Armenia, the Baltic states, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Kazakhstan, Moldova, Russia, and Ukraine. In Armenia, for example, interdisciplinary gender programs have been introduced at Yerevan State Pedagogical University, Gyumri State Pedagogical University, and Vanadzor State Pedagogical University. In Estonia, Tallinn Pedagogical University (TPU) offers an introductory course of Women's Studies and plans to introduce a Gender Studies minor in autumn 2003. In Moldova, an "Empowering Education" course has been introduced in the curricula of the Ion Creanga State Pedagogical University and the A. Russo State University in Balti. In addition, many pedagogical universities have revised their programs to include skills for teaching critical thinking to students. Combined, these preservice teacher education reform efforts enable student teachers to critically reflect on concepts of gender and accordingly assess their own teaching styles, methods, and attitudes. There is a need, however, to monitor the quality, innovativeness, and impact of these courses.

In-service teacher training institutions

Throughout the region, in-service teacher education institutions do not offer any professional development opportunities on gender awareness for school teachers and administrators (see table 4). The only exception is Armenia, where in-service teacher education institutions provide an opportunity for teachers to enroll in professional development courses such as "Gender Problems and Ways of Solutions" and "Interdisciplinary and Gender Programs." The quality of such courses, as well as their commitment to gender empowerment, is unknown. In order to address existing inequities in classroom practices, it is crucial to provide ample opportunities for school teachers and administrators to critically examine their own teaching styles and school policies through in-service training programs. Therefore, gender equity issues, particularly in intersection with other social factors such as poverty and ethnicity, must be addressed in in-service teacher training institutions where new research, methods, and policies can be provided on an ongoing basis.

TABLE 4. Availability of Courses on Gender Equity in Universities, Preservice and In-service Teacher Education Institutions (2002)

Countries	University-based gender studies	Preservice teacher education	In-service teacher education
Central Europe			
Czech Republic	✓	✓	❍
Slovakia	✓	❍	–
Poland	✓	❍	–
Hungary	✓	✓	–
Former Yugoslavia			
Slovenia	✓	❍	❍
Croatia	✓	❍	❍
Macedonia	✓	❍	❍
FR Yugoslavia	✓	❍	❍
South Eastern Europe			
Albania	✓	✓	❍
Bulgaria	✓	❍	❍
Romania	✓	❍	❍
Baltic States			
Estonia	✓	✓	❍
Latvia	✓	✓	–
Lithuania	✓	✓	–
Western CIS			
Belarus	✓	❍	–
Moldova	✓	✓	❍
Russia	✓	✓	–
Ukraine	✓	✓	–
Caucasus			
Armenia	✓	✓	✓
Azerbaijan	✓	❍	❍
Georgia	❍	❍	❍
Central Asia			
Kazakhstan	✓	✓	❍
Kyrgyzstan	✓	❍	❍
Tajikistan	✓	❍	❍
Uzbekistan	❍	❍	✓

Key: ✓ *courses on gender equity taught*

❍ *no courses on gender equity taught*

– *no information available*

Growing Influence of Local NGOs

During the transition period, the newly established NGO sector has been vital in raising public awareness about growing gender inequities in CEE, SEE, and the fSU. In the education sphere, NGOs have initiated the first research studies of education policies, classroom practices, and teacher/parent attitudes, as well as offered new professional development opportunities for school teachers and administrators. Importantly, NGOs have played a crucial role in providing professional assistance not only to schools, but also to colleges and universities. In Albania, for example, representatives of preservice teacher education institutions included gender elements in their courses as a result of different trainings offered by local and international NGOs. In particular, many university professors there participated in workshops on human rights, democratic education, and gender awareness, which later helped them to develop new course materials for student teachers. In Estonia, the Tallinn Pedagogical University (TPU) developed and introduced gender courses in the official curriculum as a result of their close collaboration with the NGO Estonian Women's Studies and Resource Center. Similarly, the Moldovan NGO Pro Didactica has been instrumental in providing professional development courses on gender equity issues for school and university representatives.

Increasing Role of Regional Politics and International Donors

By the end of the 1990s, the climate for policy dialogue regarding gender equity became more favorable throughout CEE, SEE, and the fSU. In Eastern Europe, the European Union (EU) has been instrumental in placing gender equity issues on national policy agendas. In particular, the aspiration of Eastern European countries to join the EU presented a unique chance to influence local policies by including equal opportunities for women and men on the accession agenda, which requires candidate states to bring their laws in line with the EU's *acquis communautaire*. As a result, most of the EU accession countries have been engaged in the process of redefining their policies and practices to ensure gender equity in all spheres of political, economic, and social life.

> "The values of Western society are reaching Estonia due to our open society, through training and direct aid. Pursuant to international agreements, all foreign states and international aid organizations have set a goal to promote a policy of mainstreaming a gender perspective in all the projects and programs. . ."
>
> *Ülle-Marike Papp, Bureau of Equality in the European Integration Department of the Estonian Ministry of Social Affairs*

In Central Asia, a number of different international organizations have been involved in advocating for gender equity in education. In particular, UNICEF has declared that gender-sensitive education is a number one priority in its Medium Term Strategic Plan (2002–2004). Similarly, the Asian Development Bank (ADB) and the World Bank (WB) have been actively involved in identifying gender issues in the education sector and society and assisting the governments in designing appropriate gender-sensitive strategies, components, and indicators to respond to gender inequities in education. The Open Society Institute has diverse programs to support the development of gender studies and gender-sensitive education in the region. Overall, while recent international commitments, initiatives, and programs demonstrate the existence of a cooperative spirit across the international community, it is unclear whether international organizations are working according to a commonly interpreted agenda as opposed to the separate mandates and strengths of their individual organizations.[11]

Conclusion

In order to maintain, ensure, or balance gender equity levels in education in CEE, SEE, and the fSU, policymaking must include consideration of gender in policy formulation, implementation, and monitoring. Countries in the region have largely signed on to both international and national documents and legislation promoting equality for men and women, and this is an important first step toward guaranteeing gender equity. However, this chapter has outlined several constraints to this legislation.

First, many reform goals underscore the importance of ensuring equal education rights for all children, but they are usually restricted to generalized commitments to equality. As well, financial strain will limit several countries' ability to implement such commitments. Second, the lack of information-gathering systems across the region means that governments cannot target needed areas of reform based on strong enrollment, participation, and other education data. Third, while the growth of gender studies programs at universities is promising, the absence of gender-oriented courses in preservice and especially in-service teacher training institutions across the region results in teachers reinforcing gender stereotypes and insensitivity to gender in school-wide and classroom practices.

Finally, NGOs have filled gaps in several countries by providing professional development workshops and other trainings related to gender equity. The efforts of the international community, through international covenants and through donor aid packages, are focusing attention on gender equity in education; however, major barriers to implementation and monitoring remain. Until such barriers are eliminated, policy development in the area of gender equity in education will exist on paper only.

5. Conclusions and Recommendations

Transition in CEE, SEE, and the fSU has created ruptures with tradition, exposing educational systems to the possibility of increasing inequity. It also, however, holds tremendous opportunities to identify potential gender issues and close gender gaps through emerging policy and practice before they take hold and intensify. Throughout the region, it is important to recognize that changing norms in response to political, economic, and social shifts demand attention as they affect gender relations. It is crucial to understand gender dynamics in the region and how they might inhibit girls' or boys' educational performance and/or impact their life chances upon exiting the school system. Reduction and elimination of gender barriers depend on their careful and thorough identification.

Priority Areas for Intervention

Thus far, gender issues have been largely ignored in education reform across the region. Even when equity issues are identified as a priority in sector-wide reform, as in Ukraine's development of a National Concept for Education, gender equity is not included. Information such as gender-disaggregated enrollment rates are inconsistently gathered and used. The following recommendations highlight areas that merit immediate intervention.

- **Education System Monitoring**

  A whole range of gender-disaggregated statistics is necessary to ensure gender equity in all aspects of education system performance. This includes data on enrollments, attendance, education spending, and access to inputs and outcomes. Without this information, significant problems of inequity may go unnoticed.

- **Curriculum and Educational Materials**

  Including a gender dimension into curriculum reform programs is vital to reducing gender inequity. Reformed curricula should include standards regarding the representation of gender and for gender equity. These standards should be supported by guidelines for textbook authors and in the criteria for textbook evaluation.

- **Teacher Training**

  Evidence from the region suggests that teachers hold the same views about gender roles as society as a whole. Teachers need gender awareness training if they are to play their part in promoting gender equity in education. In addition to the existing reforms of preservice and in-service teacher education, a gender element needs to be added.

- **Education Policymaking and Implementation**

  The policymaking process itself needs to become more gender sensitive. For gender mainstreaming to become a reality there need to be changes in the way education policy is developed and implemented. This requires inclusion of women or women's organizations at decision-making levels and in school management.

- **Societal Analysis**

  Education policymakers should address issues of poverty, minority discrimination, and rural living, as they impact educational attendance and attainment. There is a need to work closely with local communities and families to identify and address the causes of nonattendance for both boys and girls. Attention should be paid to occupational segregation, lifestyle, and health risks facing girls in particular, and the effect of militarization on education. In addition, work needs to be done at the local community level to challenge attitudes that devalue the importance of educating girls.

- **Economic Relevance**

  This is a new and pressing area of concern for education systems, which have particular potential for improving gender equity. Students who will compete for jobs in a free market require new types of support to enable them to make the right choices. Programs need to be put in place to encourage all students, boys and girls, to pursue careers on the basis of their abilities and interests, even if that means moving into a nontraditional occupation. In particular, girls need to be encouraged to enroll in science and technology subjects.

Next Steps in Intervention

The areas above can serve as guiding principles. The following specific conclusions and recommendations have been drawn from this research on gender equity in education. They include immediate steps that can be taken to increase gender equity by educators and policymakers in the region in the three areas: (1) access, participation, and achievement, (2) classroom and school practices, and (3) education policymaking.

Access, participation, and achievement

For all countries in this region, the reemergence of gender gaps in enrollments (disadvantaging either girls or boys) marks a step backwards. It makes it harder to achieve equitable education systems or meet international commitments for ensuring education for all. The girls and boys affected will be disadvantaged for their entire school careers and beyond. It is important to consider the following issues in order to increase gender equity in education access, participation, and achievement:

- ***Increase preschool enrollments*** for girls and boys across the region through formal and nonformal preschool programs to ensure that both girls and boys are prepared to succeed in basic education.

- ***Acknowledge and address regional differences to lessen the gender gap in enrollments in secondary school and higher education.*** It is crucial to understand the reasons for the feminization of higher education and the underlying reasons for gender gaps for both genders in secondary school. Gender studies departments and other institutes can be encouraged and contracted to research these issues, in countries where they exist.

- ***Build institutional capacity to assess programs, policies, performance, and procedures from a gender perspective.*** For example, organizational gender "audits" can be undertaken to identify areas of good practice and obstacles to equality initiatives and provide general and thematic gender analysis training for school, university, and policymaking staff.

- ***Consider the effects of the structure of the education system and new financial arrangements on children's access to education.*** In particular, policymakers and educators need to examine how girls' access to education is affected by the structure of the education system and the increasing reliance on families' financial contributions, for such items as textbooks and supplies, as well as additional payments to teachers.

- ***Develop effective programs to improve participation of disadvantaged minorities.*** Programs to improve disadvantaged minorities' participation in education need to take account of traditionalist attitudes toward women's status, early marriage for girls, and household burdens of girls, especially in the Romani community.

- ***Address parental concerns about children's safety in school.*** In rural areas, consideration must be given to issues such as transportation, school consolidation, and improved security in order to mitigate the effects of parental concerns about sending girls to school.

- ***Involve parents and communities.*** Involving parents and communities in decisions about local education provision can also have a positive effect on girls' participation.

- ***Improve capacity of institutional and school staff.*** The capacity of institutional and school staff should be built through, for instance, organizing dialogues, roundtables, and briefings for school/university staff on gender issues that are relevant to their work, developing guidelines and checklists to determine if education institutions are supporting women's empowerment and/or gender mainstreaming strategies, and developing gender equity action plans at the departmental and organizational levels.

- ***Collect gender-disaggregated data on education access, participation, and achievement.*** There is a tremendous need for more data collection on academic achievement across subject areas for all grades. Data disaggregated by gender are needed for all dimensions of students' access and participation in education, not just for overall enrollments. It would also be beneficial to develop resource material collections and websites that assist school/university staff to access needed background material on gender and women's empowerment and gender statistics as they are gathered.

- ***Improve the quantity and quality of gender monitoring in education.*** The existence of previously unrecognized problems in access and participation underlines the need for improvements in the quantity and quality of gender monitoring in education systems. Gender monitoring should include detailed information on participation patterns, access to inputs such as new technology, and the outcomes of education.

Classroom and school environments

Schools have a significant impact on gender equity in society through curricula, textbooks and teaching materials, teacher attitudes, the overall culture of the school, and leadership structures. Children develop their ideas about gender roles from a variety of sources, but the authority that accompanies formal education makes the information, ideas, and values transmitted particularly powerful. The following recommendations highlight immediate steps that can be taken to increase gender equity in classroom and school environments:

- ***Develop gender-sensitive curricula, textbooks, and teaching materials.*** There is a need to develop curricula, textbooks, and other teaching materials that are free from gender-based stereotypes and that promote gender equity.

- ***Conduct textbook and curriculum analysis to eliminate gender stereotyping.*** Gender analysis of textbooks and curricula should be undertaken to identify and reduce stereotyping. Efforts should be made to include information (skills and knowledge) that promotes gender equity, such as rights and responsibilities inside and outside the home. The teaching of critical thinking skills will enable students to question and come to their own understanding of gender relations.

- ***Raise the gender awareness of teachers through in-service teacher training programs.*** Teachers need training in gender issues to raise their own awareness and to learn how to teach in a way that respects boys and girls equally. Teachers should be cognizant of their own biases as they reward students academically and urge them toward various career paths.

- ***Increase the professional prestige of teachers.*** Education policymakers need to consider how to make teaching a more prestigious, well-regarded profession. This can be done using no-cost methods such as teaching awards. As the profession's prestige increases, so should the public's willingness to raise wages.

- ***Increase the number of women in management positions within educational institutions.*** To combat the gender segregation of roles within the schools, the number of women in management positions within schools needs to increase.

- ***Create gender-sensitive school culture.*** School culture should be shifted to encourage equal chances in life for girls and boys by openly discussing gender disadvantages in society and instilling in students the desire to eradicate them. School environments should promote mutual respect and cooperation between girls and boys and men and women.

- ***Transform secondary education from narrowly specialized vocation orientation into a more general education focusing on student life-skills.*** There is a need to transform secondary education through offering a more general, broader education focusing on life skills.

Education policy

Most countries in the region have signed onto international standard-setting policy documents that, in principle, guarantee gender equality. However, the implementation of the policies suffers from the lack of collaboration by all relevant stakeholders and clarity about the terms and scope of the policies. The following recommendations include urgent steps that should be taken by educators and policymakers in the region:

- ***Identify gender equity as an explicit goal of education reform.*** Gender equity must be an explicit policy goal of education reform. It is not sufficient for it to be implicit, as it is currently. Despite constitutional affirmations of gender equality, women do not actually experience equality in most of the countries in the region. Countries can begin to rectify this by establishing clear definitions of discrimination and clear legal provisions and policies regarding gender protection.

- ***Include women's NGOs as stakeholders that participate fully in the policy dialogue process.*** Women should be encouraged and enabled, through NGOs or other institutional vehicles, to bring their vision and leadership, knowledge and skills, and views and aspirations into the development agenda from local levels to national levels.

- ***Build capacity among key stakeholders to advocate for gender equity.*** Those persons specifically assigned to advocate for gender equity—for example, gender units and focal points in governments, universities, and international organizations—should be assisted in acquiring skills in advocacy, negotiation, and other necessary "change agent" qualities.

- ***Encourage collaboration between governments and educational institutions to ensure implementation of gender-sensitive strategies and programs.*** Governments and educational institutions should collaborate in creating implementation structures to ensure that laws regarding gender equity in education become reality in schools and classrooms.

- ***Include gender as a significant dimension of policy analysis.*** This requires the collection of gender-disaggregated data, both quantitative and qualitative, on education system performance. Policy problems and solutions should be analyzed from a gender perspective. This will require gender awareness training for key staff and may also require external expertise.

- ***Improve data collection in order to reliably identify significant problems of inequity.*** Tapping into gender specialists at universities and other data collection institutes would be beneficial.

- ***Involve university gender studies programs in research on relevant gender issues in education.*** Gender studies programs at higher education institutions can make significant contributions to identifying gender inequities by conducting gender analysis of curricula, and developing gender-sensitive curricula relevant to the local context.

- ***Ensure that preservice teacher education institutions equip future teachers with the necessary skills and attitudes to create equitable classroom practices.*** Preservice teacher education institutions (pedagogical colleges, institutes, and universities) are instrumental in equipping future teachers with the necessary methods, skills, and attitudes to create equitable classroom practices in order to ensure equal education outcomes for all students. Additional courses that focus on gender equity should be created and taught to teachers-in-training. Inter-regional collaboration on the development of such courses is advised.

- ***Ensure that in-service teacher education institutions promote innovative teaching strategies that promote gender equity in schools.*** Ongoing training that is sensitive to gender as well as other societal issues that intersect with gender would help teachers understand gender-related research and increase their own gender equitable classroom interactions.

- ***Improve coordination among various international donor agencies for collective endeavor to eliminate gender disparity in education.*** There is an acute need for more effective coordination of specific strategies, programs, and activities among international donor agencies to promote gender equity in education.

Appendices

Appendix A

Percentage of Parliamentary Seats Held by Women

Country	1987	2000
Albania	30%	5%
Bulgaria	21%	10,8%
Hungary	21%	8.3%
Poland	21%	12.6%
Romania	34%	5.6%
Russian Federation	32%	5.6%

Source: Inter-Parliamentary Union (cited in UNIFEM, 2000).

Appendix B

Female Wages as a Percentage of Male Wages (circa 1997)

Country	Industry and services
Azerbaijan	53%
Poland	79%
Romania	76%
Ukraine	72%

Source: UNIFEM (2000)

Appendix C

Basic Education Enrollments (gross rates, percent of relevant population)

Country	Note	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Czech Republic	a	96.9	98.6	100.7	100.7	100.6	100	99.6	97.3	97.6	97.6	97.7	98.4
Slovakia	b	97	98.1	98.5	98.4	98.5	97.9	97.5	96.8	98.7	101.3	107.5	107.4
Poland	c d	97.9	97.5	97.3	97.1	97.2	97.1	97.2	97.4	98	98.1	98.3	98.6
Hungary	b	98.5	98.8	98.4	98.4	98.1	97.9	98.5	98.2	97.9	98	98.7	-
Slovenia	c	95.1	95.3	95.1	95.3	95.7	96.1	96.7	96.9	97.1	97.4	-	-
Croatia	c e	94	81	79	85	89	88	89	94.4	94.3	95.9	92.4	82.5
Macedonia	c	102	100.7	99.8	97.6	97	97	97.9	98.4	99.1	98.8	98.9	100.1
Bosnia and Herzegovina	c f	93.8	96.1	96.2	-	-	-	97.6	103.6	101.4	-	-	-
FR Yugoslavia	c g	95.1	94.7	73.1	74	72.7	71.6	72.9	71.9	70.9	69.9	66.1	96.9
Albania	c h	102.2	102	97.9	94.5	95.3	96.6	96.8	96.1	94.6	92.6	90	87.3
Bulgaria	c	98.4	98.6	97.3	95.1	94	94.3	93.7	93.6	94	94.3	95.1	95.5
Romania	c	95.8	92.5	91.9	91.7	91.4	92.2	93.7	94.2	96.3	97.9	98.5	98.9
Estonia	i	96.2	94.9	93.6	92.3	91.7	91.2	92.2	92.8	93.7	95.9	97.5	102.8
Latvia	i	95	94.9	93.9	91.4	88.7	88.2	88.6	90.6	91.4	91.5	92.3	96.3
Lithuania	j	94.4	92.5	91.9	92.2	91.1	91.4	92.7	93	94.9	95.9	95.5	97.6
Belarus	i	95.6	94.6	93.9	93.8	93.3	93.2	93.7	93.4	93.8	94.6	94.8	95.4
Moldova	i k	94.1	93.9	93.5	79.4	78.3	78.3	79	79.2	92.5	92.5	94.1	93.5
Russia	i	90	90	89.3	88.7	87.5	87.8	88.4	88.7	88.7	88.5	88.8	89.4
Ukraine	i	92.8	92.3	91.5	91.1	90.4	90.6	90.8	91.2	90.7	89.9	89.9	91.7
Armenia	c	95.5	94.6	91.6	91.1	86.4	82.2	81.4	82.8	82.9	82.6	81.6	79.5
Azerbaijan	i	87.8	87.7	87.8	88.2	89.1	90.3	91.2	90.6	91.5	87.2	86.8	89.6
Georgia	i l	95.2	95.3	92.4	83.3	82.4	80.7	79.8	80.6	81	81.2	85.2	86.1
Kazakhstan	i	94.8	94.6	93.9	94.1	93.8	94.2	94.4	94.7	94.2	94.3	94.2	99.5
Kyrgyzstan	i	92.2	92	91.4	91.6	85.3	86.3	87.7	89.2	89.6	90	89.5	95.9
Tajikistan	i	94.3	94.9	94.9	91.4	84.7	85.3	85	83.7	83.5	86.3	84.3	88.4
Turkmenistan	i	91.2	89.2	85.4	83.3	81.8	80.8	81.5	81	80.6	79.9	78.9	-
Uzbekistan	i	92	91.5	88.3	87.7	87.3	87.5	88	88.4	88.9	89.2	88.9	97

Notes:
a. 1989-95: 6-13 year-olds. 1996-99: 6-14 year-olds.
b. 6-13 year-olds.
c. 7-14 year-olds.
d. Net rates.
e. Pupil data 1990-95: underreported; estimated rate: 95%.
f. IRC estimate. End of school year. Population: US Census Bureau (2000), International Data Base (IDB).
g. Pupil data 1991-98: excludes ethnic Albanians in Kosovo, 1999: excludes Kosovo. Population 1998-99: FSOY estimate.
h. Population 1996-99: IRC estimates based on national data by 5-year age groups.
i. 7-15 year-olds.
j. 1989-98: 7-15 year-olds. 1999: 7-16 year-olds.
k. Students 1992-99 and population 1997-99: excludes Transdniestr.

Source: UNICEF MONEE database (2001)

Appendix D

Gross and Net Enrollment Ratios in Basic Education by Gender

COUNTRY	YEAR	Gross enrollment ratio (%) Primary			Net enrollment ratio (%) Primary		
		Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Central Europe							
Czech Republic	1999/2000	104.08	104.39	103.76	90.38	90.37	90.40
Slovakia	1999/2000	102.85	103.48	102.19			
Poland	1999/2000	100.99 b	102.40 b	99.50 b	96.62 b	96.67 b	96.58 b
Hungary	1999/2000	103.41	104.21	102.58	89.81	90.00	89.62
Former Yugoslavia							
Slovenia	1998/1999	97.65	98.14	97.14	93.89	94.32	93.44
Croatia (a)	1999/2000	90	91	89	72	72	72
Macedonia	1999/2000	100.39	100.72	100.03	93.55	93.98	93.10
Bosnia and Herzegovina (a)	1996	74	74	74			
FR of Yugoslavia (a)	1999	66	65	67	51	50	51
Southeastern Europe							
Albania	1999/2000	109.24	109.70	108.74	100.00	100.00	100.00
Bulgaria	1999/2000	103.55	104.90	102.12	95.36	96.21	94.47
Romania	1999/2000	102.08	102.99	101.12	93.20	93.43	92.97
Baltic States							
Estonia	1999/2000	102.80	104.64	100.88	97.57	98.48	96.62
Latvia	1999/2000	101.22	102.01	100.40	93.12	93.32	92.91
Lithuania	1999/2000	100.85	101.21	100.46	94.24	94.29	94.19
Western CIS							
Belarus	1999/2000	110.54	111.80	109.22			
Moldova (a)	1996	97	98	97			
Russian Federation	1999/2000	84.79	85.08	84.49			
Ukraine	1998/1999	81.21	81.69	80.72			
Caucasus							
Armenia (a)	1996	87	85	90			
Azerbaijan	1999/2000	98.28	97.42	99.20	90 a	89 a	91 A
Georgia	1999/2000	98.51	98.53	98.49			
Central Asia							
Kazakstan	1999/2000	96.17	95.93	96.42			
Kyrgyzstan	1999/2000	101.64	103.00	100.25	82.06	82.48	81.64
Tajikistan	1999/2000	104.59	108.52	100.55	86.55 b	89.78 b	83.22 b
Turkmenistan (a)	1996	109	109	109			
Uzbekistan (a)	1996	80	81	79			

Notes:
a. Data from World Development Indicators (WDI) database
b. UNESCO Institute of Statistics estimation

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (October, 2002), available: http://portal.unesco.org/uis/

Appendix E

Pre-Primary Enrollments (net rates, percent of 3-6 population)

Country	Note	1989	1990	1991	1992	993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Czech Republic	a	81.3	75.2	71.1	72.7	74.5	76.7	77.5	76.1	78.5	80.5	85.4	85.9
Slovakia	a	77.9	72	-	-	63.1	61.2	57.4	60.6	64.8	68.2	69.5	68.8
Poland	-	48.7	47.1	43.9	42.6	42.7	44.3	45.3	46.8	47.9	49.6	49.9	50.2
Hungary	a	85.7	85.3	86.1	86.9	87.1	86.2	87	86.5	86.1	86.	87.3	-
Slovenia	b c	55.5	55.7	54.3	54.5	57.8	60.1	62.2	64.5	65	68.3	70.2	69.5
Croatia	-	29.4	29.4	19.1	20	-	26.1	31	30.9	34.1	33.2	33.8	36.3
Macedonia	b c d	26.8	26.9	26.5	25.1	26.2	26.1	27.7	29.1	28.9	28.5	28.7	27.2
Bosnia and Herzegovina	e	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8.7	10	9.8	9.7
Yugoslavia	f	24.1	23.9	22.3	20.6	21.6	24.8	26.8	28.4	29.7	29.7	29.5	43.2
Albania	b g	42.5	44.4	37.5	27.9	27.6	27.8	28.9	28.5	27.4	28	27.7	27.7
Bulgaria	-	66.7	65.5	56.9	60.1	57.7	59.7	64.5	66.2	62.1	65.3	66.4	66.9
Romania	b	61.6	53.3	52.6	52.9	52.8	57.4	60.9	63.7	63.1	65.1	66.2	66.5
Estonia	-	62.2	67.4	60.5	53.7	56	58.8	63.2	67.1	70.4	72.3	73.5	79.5
Latvia	b	52.8	44.8	37	28.3	32.6	39.9	47.1	50.8	52.1	55.8	61	63.4
Lithuania	b	59.1	55.9	46.9	39.1	30.1	33.3	36.8	40.3	44.4	48.2	51.6	50.5
Belarus	b	63.1	63.3	62.5	58	58.3	61	62.3	64	66.9	63	64	65.6
Moldova	h	61.2	61.6	58.8	41.9	40.2	37	34.4	33.8	38.3	37.4	32.7	36.8
Russia	b	73.4	72.6	71.6	64.7	64.1	62.8	62.8	63	63	62.5	63.1	64.8
Ukraine	b	64.2	63.2	61.5	58.3	57.1	54.5	51.4	47.8	44.3	44.6	45.3	44.7
Armenia	b	48.5	45.4	45.8	39.5	34	29.1	23.8	25.3	25.3	23.8	24.9	23.9
Azerbaijan	-	21.6	20.7	19.9	18.8	18.7	16.2	15.2	13.9	13.2	13.2	13.9	15.8
Georgia	-	43.6	43	40	31.1	27	19	20.5	22.9	22.9	25.4	27.1	27.4
Kazakhstan	-	53.1	53.7	53.1	47	42	31.6	25.5	-	12.3	12.4	10.5	12
Kyrgyzstan	-	30	28.7	26.1	20.5	13	8.6	6.5	6.6	6.4	6.5	6.9	8.7
Tajikistan	b	-	15.2	14.1	11.3	10.9	10	6.9	6.8	6.1	5.6	5.5	5.5
Turkmenistan	-	33.5	33	32.1	30.7	31.2	28.3	25.3	22.1	21.1	19	18.7	-
Uzbekistan	-	36.8	37.1	35.1	30.7	29	26.1	24.5	19.5	17.6	16.1	16.2	18.2

Notes:
a. 3-5 year-olds.
b. Gross enrollments.
c. Includes preschool preparatory classes.
d. Population 1999: IRC estimate.
e. Refers to 3-7 age group in Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina.
f. Pupil data 1991-98: excludes ethnic Albanians in Kosovo, 1999: excludes Kosovo. Population 1998-99: FSOY estimate.
g. Population: IRC estimates based on national data by 5-year age groups.
h. Students 1992-99 and population 1997-99: excludes Transdniestr.

Source: UNICEF MONEE database (2001)

Appendix F

Secondary Education Enrollment Ratio by Gender

COUNTRY	YEAR	Gross enrollment ratio (%) Primary			Net enrollment ratio (%) Primary		
		Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Central Europe							
Czech Republic	1999/2000	87.94	87.20	88.71	84.34	83.88	84.81
Slovakia	1999/2000	86.59	85.79	87.43			
Hungary	1999/2000	98.58	98.17	99.01	87.21	86.85	87.59
Poland	1999/2000	98.45 b	98.75 b	98.13 b	88.14 b	85.95 b	90.42 b
Former Yugoslavia							
Slovenia	1998/1999	98.75	97.40	100.17	89.50	87.95	91.13
Croatia (a)	1999	84	83	86	79	78	80
Macedonia	1999/2000	83.61	84.97	82.19	56 a	57 a	55 a
Bosnia &Herzegovina (a)	1996	69	69	69			
FR Yugoslavia (a)	1999	61	59	62			
Southeastern Europe							
Albania	1999/2000	75.75	74.59	77.01	71.46	70.40	72.61
Bulgaria	1999/2000	92.04	93.11	90.92	85.75	86.65	84.81
Romania	1999/2000	80.18	79.62	80.76	75.93	75.02	76.88
Baltic States							
Estonia	1999/2000	106.95	105.49	108.46	89.98	87.46	92.58
Latvia	1999/2000	88.85	87.76	89.98	84.22	83.28	85.19
Lithuania	1998/1999	91.62	91.42	91.83	86.73 b	86.32 b	87.16 b
Western CIS							
Belarus	1999/2000	94.21	95.68	92.71			
Moldova (a)	1996	80	79	82			
Russian Federation	1999/2000	81.90	79.12	84.78			
Ukraine	1998/1999	92.80	86.53 a	99.29 a			
Caucasus							
Armenia (a)	1995/1996	90	100	79			
Azerbaijan	1999/2000	80.16	79.99	80.33	78 a	78 a	78 a
Georgia	1999/2000	77.69	77.08	78.32	54.41 b	52.60 b	56.30 b
Central Asia							
Kazakstan	1999/2000	86.96	86.73	87.19			
Kyrgyzstan	1998/1999	83.00	81.95	84.08			
Tajikistan	1999/2000	75.95	81.78	69.99			
Turkmenistan (a)	1996	112	112	112			
Uzbekistan	1996	94	100	89			

Notes:
a. Data from World Development Indicators (WDI) database
b. UNESCO Institute of Statistics estimation

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (October, 2002), available: http://portal.unesco.org/uis/

Appendix G

Higher Education Enrollment Ratios

Country	Note	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Czech Republic	b	16.6	17.2	16	16.6	17.5	18.6	19.8	21.1	22.1	23.7	26	28.2
Slovakia	c	13.4	14.3	14.1	14.6	15.4	17.1	18.3	19.5	20.3	21.5	22.5	22.9
Poland	-	16	17	17.1	18.6	21.2	24	27.2	30.8	34.8	39.2	42.8	46.3
Hungary	d	12.2	12.1	12.3	12.9	14.1	15.8	18	19.7	25.2	27.5	28.9	35.9
Slovenia	e	23.1	22.9	25.5	26.1	28.2	30.1	31.3	34.3	44	51	-	58.1
Croatia	f	17.4	18.1	18.1	20.1	21.2	21.2	22.2	23.5	24.2	25.1	26.1	28.2
Macedonia	g	19.3	17.6	16	16.2	15.7	16.3	17.1	17	17.5	17.9	19.7	18.6
Bosnia and Herzegovina	h	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	15.1	-	-	-
Yugoslavia	i	22.2	20.6	17.6	18.7	18.4	18.4	20.2	21.6	23.6	23.6	27.1	25.3
Albania	j	6.9	7.8	8.8	11	10.2	9.7	10.2	11.5	11.8	12.5	12.7	12.4
Bulgaria	-	22	26.2	25.7	27	28.1	30.3	33.7	34.9	34.1	35.2	34.7	33.3
Romania	-	7.2	9.2	11.3	12.8	13.5	13.5	17.5	18.6	19.1	21.3	23.4	26.8
Estonia	-	36.1	34.4	32.2	29.1	28.2	28.9	31.7	34.9	38.3	42.5	45	50.9
Latvia	-	20.5	20.5	20.8	19.1	17.9	18.3	21.6	31.1	35.9	42	46.5	52.7
Lithuania	-	27.8	26.5	22.8	21.3	20.7	21.1	22.8	25.9	30.5	34.4	39.2	43.6
Belarus	-	22.9	23	22.5	22.7	21.8	21.9	22.7	23.9	25.6	28.4	30	31.7
Moldova	k	16.2	15.7	14.9	13.2	12.7	12.9	13.7	14.2	18.3	19.9	20.8	21.1
Russia	-	24.8	24.6	23.9	22.5	21.8	21.6	22.4	23.5	25.6	28	31.4	36.2
Ukraine	-	22.3	21.7	21.1	20.1	19.2	20.3	20.8	22.2	25.5	28	29.7	32.6
Armenia	-	19.3	20.1	19.5	16.9	13.5	16.6	15.2	15	15.3	16	16	15.5
Azerbaijan	-	11.9	12.6	13.1	12.3	12	11.5	12.7	13.3	12.8	13.4	14.5	14.3
Georgia	l	19.1	21.7	23.8	26.2	19.4	28.6	26.1	27	26.2	26	29	30.7
Kazakhstan	-	18.1	18.7	18.5	17.7	16.9	16.9	16.6	16.2	18.7	20.4	23.3	27.9
Kyrgyzstan	-	13.2	12.9	12.5	11.5	10.7	11.2	12.9	15.3	19	24.8	29.8	34.6
Tajikistan	-	11.5	11.9	11.3	11.6	11.2	11.9	11.8	12.1	11.9	11.3	11.5	11.4
Turkmenistan	-	10.2	9.9	9.5	8.6	8.1	7.8	6.4	5.7	5	4.4	3.9	-
Uzbekistan	-	15	15.2	14.8	13.4	11.3	9.4	7.6	6.6	6.1	6	6.2	6.6

Notes:

a. IRC estimate based on number of students in non-degree and degree-granting higher education.

b. 1989-95: 18-22 year-olds. 1996-99: 19-23 year-olds.

c. 18-22 year-olds. Only full-time courses.

d. 18-23 year-olds.

e. 19-23 year-olds. 1997-98: includes candidates for graduation.

f. Population: IRC estimate based on national data by 5-year age groups.

g. Population 1999: IRC estimate.

h. Students data: ASBH (1999), Agency for Statistics of Bosnia and Herzegovina, Statistical Bulletin 1.

i. Student data 1991-98: excludes ethnic Albanians in Kosovo, 1999: excludes Kosovo. Age group 19-23 years. 1998-99: FSOY estimate.

j. Population 1996-99: IRC estimates based on national data by 5-year age groups.

k. Students 1992-99 and population 1997-99: excludes Transdniestr.

l. Student 1993: excludes private universities.

Source: UNICEF MONEE database (2001)

Appendix H

Gross Enrollment Ratio at Tertiary Education by Gender

COUNTRY	YEAR	Gross enrollment ratio (%) at Tertiary level		
		Total	Male	Female
Central Europe				
Czech Republic	1999/2000	28.66	28.21	29.14
Slovakia	1999/2000	28.85	28.12	29.61
Poland	1999/2000	50.44	42.03	59.19
Hungary	1999/2000	36.69	33.09	40.46
Former Yugoslavia				
Slovenia	1998/1999	53.33 b	45.72 b	61.34 b
Croatia (a)	1998	31.00	28.00	33.00
Macedonia	1999/2000	24.66	19.41	30.14
Bosnia and Herzegovina	-			
FR Yugoslavia (a)	1998	22.00	20.00	25.00
Southeastern Europe				
Albania	1999/2000	14.73	11.48	18.18
Bulgaria	1999/2000	42.72	35.69	50.09
Romania (a)	1998	22.50	20.08	24.30
Baltic States				
Estonia	1999/2000	52.82	43.26	62.64
Latvia	1998/1999	50.00	37.92	62.39
Lithuania	1998/1999	40.24	31.80	48.89
Western CIS				
Belarus	1999/2000	49.90	43.66	56.19
Moldova (a)	1998	26.50	23.80	29.20
Russian Federation	1999/2000	65.10	57.38	72.99
Ukraine	1998/1999	43.17	40.39	46.02
Caucasus				
Armenia (a)	1998	12.20	10.50	14.00
Azerbaijan	1998/1999	21.32 b	22.61 b	19.96 b
Georgia	1999/2000	33.82	33.84	33.81
Central Asia				
Kazakstan	1999/2000	25.81	23.63	28.01
Kyrgyzstan	1998/1999	29.69	29.13	30.26
Tajikistan	1999/2000	14.60	21.65	7.42
Turkmenistan	1999/2000			
Uzbekistan	1999/2000			

Notes:
a. Data from WB (2002), Constructing Knowledge Societies: New Challenges for Tertiary Education
b. UNESCO Institute of Statistics estimation

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (November, 2002), available: http://portal.unesco.org/uis/

Appendix I

Gender Differences in Science and Math Achievement (TIMSS, 1995)

(a) Gender Differences in Mathematics Achievement, Eighth Grade (TIMSS, 1995)

Country	Male's Mean	Female's Mean	Difference Absolute Value
Hungary	537	537	0
Lithuania	477	478	1
Russian Federation	535	536	1
Romania*	483	480	3
Slovak Republic	549	545	4
Latvia (LSS)	496	491	4
Slovenia*	545	537	8
Czech Republic	569	558	11
International Averages	519	512	8

Males Score Higher Females Score Higher

Notes:
* Countries not meeting age/grade specification criteria (high percentage of older students)
▲ Statistically significant gender difference at 0.5 level
LSS Latvia Speaking Schools only

Source: Inter-Parliamentary Union (cited in UNIFEM, 2000).

(b) Gender Differences in Science Achievement, Eighth Grade (TIMSS, 1995)

Country	Male's Mean	Female's Mean	Difference Absolute Value	
Russian Federation	544	533	11	▲
Romania*	492	480	12	
Lithuania	484	470	14	▲
Latvia (LSS)	492	478	15	▲
Slovak Republic	552	537	15	▲
Hungary	563	545	18	▲
Czech Republic	586	562	24	▲
Slovenia*	573	548	25	▲
International Averages	525	509	17	

Males Score Higher Females Score Higher

Notes:
* Countries not meeting age/grade specification criteria (high percentage of older students)
▲ Statistically significant gender difference at 0.5 level
LSS Latvia Speaking Schools only

Source: Inter-Parliamentary Union (cited in UNIFEM, 2000).

Appendix J

Percentage of Female Teachers (% of total) in Primary and Secondary School

Country	Year	Primary School	Secondary School
Central Europe			
Czech Republic	2000	85%	62%
Slovakia	2000	93%	72%
Poland	1995	77%	---
Hungary	2000	85%	71%
Former Yugoslavia			
Slovenia	2000	96%	69%
Croatia	2000	89%	64%
Macedonia	2000	66%	49%
FR Yugoslavia	2000	68%	63%
Southeastern Europe			
Albania*	1998	73%	54%
Bulgaria	2000	91%	73%
Romania	2000	85%	64%
Baltic States			
Estonia	2000	89%	80%
Latvia	2000	97%	80%
Lithuania	2000	98%	79%
Western CIS			
Belarus	2000	99%	---
Moldova	2000	66%	49%
Russia	2000	98%	82%
Ukraine	2000	98%	---
Caucasus			
Armenia	1995	97%	44%
Azerbaijan	2000	83%	63%
Georgia	2000	92%	67%*
Central Asia			
Kazakhstan	1995	97%	---
Kyrgyzstan	1995	97 %	---
Tajikistan	2000	60%	47.5%
Turkmenistan	---	---	---
Uzbekistan	2000	82%*	64%

Notes:
* data for 1995

Source: All data from WB's Genderstats (http://genderstats.worldbank.org/); data for Albania from the Statistical Office of Albania (1998); data for Poland from Women's Rights Center, 2000; data for Tajikistan from the Ministry of Education (2000); data for Uzbekistan from State Statistical Agency (2001)

Appendix K

Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW, Article 10)

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in order to ensure to them equal rights with men in the field of education and in particular to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women:

(a) The same conditions for career and vocational guidance, for access to studies and for the achievement of diplomas in educational establishments of all categories in rural as well as in urban areas; this equality shall be ensured in pre-school, general, technical, professional and higher technical education, as well as in all types of vocational training;

(b) Access to the same curricula, the same examinations, teaching staff with qualifications of the same standard and school premises and equipment of the same quality;

(c) The elimination of any stereotyped concept of the roles of men and women at all levels and in all forms of education by encouraging coeducation and other types of education which will help to achieve this aim and, in particular, by the revision of textbooks and school programs and the adaptation of teaching methods;

(d) The same opportunities to benefit from scholarships and other study grants;

(e) The same opportunities for access to programs of continuing education, including adult and functional literacy programs, particularly those aimed at reducing, at the earliest possible time, any gap in education existing between men and women;

(f) The reduction of female student dropout rates and the organization of programs for girls and women who have left school prematurely;

(g) The same opportunities to participate actively in sports and physical education;

(h) Access to specific educational information to help to ensure the health and well being of families, including information and advice on family planning.

Appendix L

Human Rights Conventions Ratified by CEE, SEE, and FSU Countries (2002)

Human Rights Conventions Ratified by CEE, SEE, and FSU Countries (2002)	ICESCR (International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights)	CEDAW (Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women)	CRC (Convention on the Right of the Child)	CRC-OP-SC (Optional Protocol to the CRC on the Sale, Child Prostitution, and Child Pornography)
Central Europe				
Czech Republic	1993	1993	1993	---
Slovakia	1993	1993	1993	2001
Poland	1977	1980	1991	2002
Hungary	1974	1980	1991	---
Former Yugoslavia				
Slovenia	1992	1992	1992	2000
Croatia	1991	1992	1992	2002
Macedonia	1994	1994	1993	2001
Bosnia-Herzegovina	1992	1993	1993	2002
FR Yugoslavia	2001	1982	2001	2002
Southeastern Europe				
Albania	1991	1994	1992	---
Bulgaria	1970	1982	1991	2002
Romania	1974	1982	1990	2001
Baltic States				
Estonia	1991	1991	1991	---
Latvia	1992	1992	1992	2002
Lithuania	1991	1994	1992	---
Western CIS				
Belarus	1973	1981	1990	2002
Moldova	1993	1994	1993	2002
Russia	1973	1981	1990	---
Ukraine	1973	1981	1991	2000
Caucasus				
Armenia	1993	1993	1993	---
Azerbaijan	1992	1995	1992	2001
Georgia	1994	1994	1991	---
Central Asia				
Kazakhstan	---	1998	1994	2001
Kyrgyzstan	1994	1997	1994	---
Tajikistan	1999	1993	1993	2002
Turkmenistan	1997	1997	1993	---
Uzbekistan	1995	1995	1994	---

Source: Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (http://193.194.138.190/html/menu2/6/crc/treaties/status-crc.htm)

Appendix M
Slovenian Act on Equal Opportunities for Women and Men (2002)

Special Role of Education and Vocational Training (Article 12)

(1) Education on matters of gender equality shall be an integral part of the system of education and vocational training, which, among other things, shall include the preparation of both genders for active and equal participation in all fields of social life.

(2) The ministries responsible for education and labor as well as other bodies and persons with competencies in the field of education and vocational training shall ensure equal treatment for women and men, especially with regard to the preparation, adoption and implementation of public programs of education or vocational training, to the attestation of schoolbooks and teaching aids and to the introduction of organizational innovations and the modification of pedagogical and andragogical methods. They shall also establish, within the framework of their competencies, an appropriate system of measures for the elimination of established forms of unequal treatment of women and men.

Endnotes

Introduction

1. UNICEF, *Women in Transition*, 1999.
2. The *acquis communautaire*, which is the body of common rights and obligations that apply to all member states within the EU, comprises eight directives in the field of equal opportunities, including equal pay, equal access to work and promotion, equal treatment in social security and self-employment capacity, as well as protection of maternity and paternity leave.
3. While attention is focused on these countries, examples from other countries are included based on availability and relevance of data.

Chapter 1

1. World Bank, *Gender in Transition*, 2002.
2. UNICEF, 1999; World Bank, 2002.
3. Of the 23 countries for which time series are available, male life expectancy worsened in 22, and female life expectancy in 16. The decline was more pronounced in Russia, Ukraine, Belarus, the Baltic states, and Kazakhstan, where average life expectancy fell by
4-5 years from 1989 to 1995 (World Bank, 2002, p. 53).
4. World Bank, 2002.
5. UNICEF, 1999.
6. Cited in UNICEF, 1999.
7. UNIFEM, *Progress of the World's Women 2000*, 2000.
8. UNICEF, 1999.
9. UNIFEM, 2000; UNICEF, *Defining Quality in Education*, 2000.
10. UNIFEM, 2000.
11. International Helsinki Federation for Human Rights, *Women 2000: Investigation into the Status of Women's Rights in Central and South-Eastern Europe and the Newly Independent States*, 2000.
12. UNIFEM, 2000.
13. Ibid.
14. Fuszara, Malgorzata, 1999.
15. UNDP-World Bank TLSS study quoted in Asian Development Bank, *Women in Tajikistan: Country Briefing Paper*, 2002.

16. International Helsinki Federation for Human Rights, 2000.
17. UNICEF, 2000.
18. UNICEF, Social Monitor 2002: Social Trends in Transition, HIV/AIDS and Young People, Quality of Learning in Schools, 2002.
19. UNICEF, 1999.
20. Ibid.
21. Ibid.
22. Bride kidnapping is "the act of abducting a woman to marry her and includes a variety of actions, ranging from consensual marriage to kidnapping and rape" (Kleinbach, Russ L., and Sarah Amsler, "Kyrgyz Bride Kidnapping," *International Journal of Central Asian Studies*, 4, 1999). While illegal, bride kidnapping is often popularly defined as a national tradition as opposed to a crime. The tradition of bride kidnapping is still practiced in Central Asia and the Caucasus. However, it is neither well-researched nor well understood as a social phenomenon.
23. Women's Comission for Refugee Women and Children, *UNHCR Policy on Refugee Women and Guidelines on Their Protection: An Assessment of 10 Years of Implementation*, 2002.
24. Stromquist, Nelly P., "Contributions and Challenges of Feminist Theory to Comparative Education Research and Methodology," pp. 227-260, in Schriewer, Jurgen (Ed.), *Discourse Formation in Comparative Education*, 2002.
25. Ibid.
26. World Bank, 2002.
27. Stromquist, 2002.
28. OECD, *Education and Equity in OECD Countries*, 1997.
29. Carr, M., M. Chen, and R. Jhabvala, *Speaking Out: Women's Economic Empowerment in South Asia*, 1996.
30. United Nations, *Approaches to Gender Equality*, 2003.
31. Schalkwyk, Johanna, and Beth Woronuik, *Mainstreaming: A Strategy for Achieving Equality between Women and Men. A Think Piece*, 1996.

Chapter 2

1. This chapter uses enrollment rates as a measure of education access, distinguishing between different levels (preschool, primary, secondary, and tertiary).
2. World Bank, 2002, p. 44.
3. There are good reasons to believe that official enrollment figures overstate the extent to which all children, particularly girls, actually participate in education (UNIFEM, 2000.). First, in many countries information systems are unreliable. There are often big differences between official data and sample information collected by international organizations. Second, there is an over-

all problem with the availability of education system monitoring information in the region. Third, and most challenging, there is a particular problem relating specifically to gender disaggregated information. Collecting this information is a low priority in most countries of the region. For example, the Ukrainian Ministry of Education believes that "there is no discrimination concerning access to education for each gender [in Ukraine]. That is why state and local authorities do not consider as necessary to spend time and finance for getting data [on this]" (Ukraine, EFA Assessment 2000). The need for increased research and data collection on gender equity cannot be overstated. Additionally, a school "completion" index would provide a more accurate representation of education access. However this completion data, especially broken down by gender, is even less available than enrollment data.

4. UNESCO, 2002.

5. International Step by Step Association (ISSA)

6. It is important to note that Tajikistan, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Albania, Croatia, and Russia are post-countries with significant numbers of refugees, internally displaced people and destruction of school infrastructure.

7. Tajikistan and Azerbaijan present the only notable exceptions, with a 6.5 percent gender gap in net enrollment ratios favoring boys in Tajikistan and 2 percent in Azerbaijan (UNESCO, 2002).

8. For the purposes of this report, gender disparity constitutes more than 2 percent difference in enrollment ratios between female and male students.

9. Girls comprised 39 percent of all enrollments in upper-secondary education in 2000-2001 (State Statistical Agency, Dushanbe, 2001).

10. Gender balance of pupils in grade 11 (EFA Assessment, 2000)

Academic year	Percentage of boys	Percentage of girls
1990-1991	48.7%	51.3%
1997-1998	61.7%	38.3%

11. Interestingly, although not specifically discussed in this report, Mongolia is experiencing a gender gap that favors girls.

12. Dudwick, Nora, and Helen Shahariari, *Education in Albania: Changing Attitudes and Expectations*, 2000.

13. UNICEF MONEE, 2001, p. 76.

14. The study was conducted by the Youth Research Group of the Institute of Educational Research among first year university students of economics and law. The research was coordinated by Kálmán Gábor and conducted in the 1998-1999 academic year.

15. Dudac, Eva, 2001

16. Ministry of Macroeconomics and Statistics & State Department of Statistics, *Women and Men of Uzbekistan: Statistical Volume*, 2002.

17. State Statistical Agency, 1998

18. UNDP, *Report on the Status of Women in Uzbekistan*, 1999.

19. UNICEF, *Children and Women in Azerbaijan*, 1999.

20. Data from the Non-Attendance and Dropout (NADO) study (2002), which was carried out with the support of UNICEF, UNESCO, and MOE. The study surveyed 100 schools in all regions of Tajikistan, including 387 students, 386 parents, 147 teachers, and 38 local authorities.

21. Tajikistan, EFA Assessment 2000.

22. Association of Women with University Education, *Girls' Education in Tajik Republic: Experience, Problems and Solutions*, 2000.

23. In Poland, there are reports that the higher costs of education have led some families to prioritize investment in their sons' education (Polish Committee of NGOs, *The Situation of Women in Poland*, 1995.). The situation is similar in Tajikistan (Association of Women with University Education, 2000.).

24. Tajikistan, Measurement of Learning Survey (MLA) 2002. See also: *National Status Report on Gender: Tajikistan*, 1999.

25. Laporte, Bruno, and Dena Ringold, *Trends in Education Access and Financing during the Transition in Central and Eastern Europe*, World Bank Technical Paper No. 361, 1997.

26. In Tajikistan, according to the State Statistical Agency, approximately 20 percent of boys and 25 percent of girls from rural areas aged between 7 and 17 did not attend school in 1996. Additionally, in Albania, there is anecdotal evidence that, since 1997, in mountainous areas the enrollment rate of girls has been very low. This is supported by figures showing that female students make up a smaller proportion of the total number in upper-secondary education in rural areas (Institute of Statistics, Tirana, *Yearbook of Education Statistics*, 2000.).

School location	Female students as a percentage of total number
Urban	50.8%
Rural	45.1%
Total	49.2%

27. UNIFEM, 2000.

28. de Waal, Clarissa, *Report on Rural Education in Albania and Suggested Reforms to Increase Its Effectiveness*, 2000.

29. Loghin, Dina, and SEF Foundation, *The Situation of Women in Romania: A Perspective on the Women's Status Questionnaire*, 2000.

30. Dudwick and Shahariari, 2000.

31. For details, see Rughinis, Cosima, *Romania: Local Social Service Delivery Module on Roma Communities*, 2000.

32. Loghin and SEF Foundation, 2000.

33. Rughinis, 2000.

34. Conducted under the auspices of the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), the TIMSS studies included eight countries in the 1995 survey (the Czech Republic, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Russia, Slovenia, and Slovakia) and ten countries in the 1999 survey (adding Bulgaria and Moldova). The MLA studies, which focused on measuring literacy, numeracy, and life skills), were conducted with the support of UNESCO/UNICEF at the end of the 1990s and beginning of the 2000s and included four Central Asian countries (Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, and Uzbekistan).

Chapter 3

1. Much of the material in this chapter is drawn from a review of education materials, including textbooks, and curriculum documents from the countries in this report, undertaken by Laura Grünberg, National Curriculum Reform Project 2001.
2. Grünberg, Laura, *Manifestari explicite si implicite ale genului in programele si manualele scolare, Raport intermediar*, 2001; Mikk, Jann, Liina Järviste, and Jeannine Richards, 2002; Association of Women with University Education, 2000.
3. Novicka, Wanda, *The Position of Women and Demographic Processes in the Countries in Transition*, 1997.
4. Mikk, Järviste, and Richards, 2002.
5. Association of Women with University Education, 2002; UNICEF, *The Right to Quality Education: Creating Child-Friendly Schools in Central Asia*, 2002; Czachesz, Lesznyák, and Molnár, 1996 (quoted in Eva Dudik, 2001).
6. *People and Society*, 1998, grade X, Chapter on Family
7. An elementary language analysis shows that the word for mother appears far more frequently than that for father in textbooks from Romania, Albania, Ukraine and Poland. In Romania, "mother" is used four times more frequently than "father" in grade one reading books. In Ukraine, the gap is even greater. (Grünberg, 2001.)
8. National Commission for Statistics, Romania, *Women and Men in Romania*, 2000.
9. Novicka, 1997.
10. Research conducted by the Romanian Society for Feminist Analysis, in International Helsinki Federation for Human Rights, 2000.
11. Ibid.
12. The program was initiated in 1996 in Ukraine and currently operates in secondary schools and universities in Ukraine, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Lithuania, Moldova, Tajikistan, and Uzbekistan.
13. Grünberg, 2001.
14. Ibid.
15. Ombach, Marina, *In Search of Real Love*, 1994.

16. Renzetti, Claire M., and Daniel J. Curran, *Women, Men, and Society*, 4th Ed., 1999.
17. Association of Women with University Education, 2002.
18. Dudwick and Shahariari, 2000.
19. Association of Women with University Education, 2002.
20. Ukraine Country Education Profiles: *Women in Society*.
21. Miroiu, Mihaela, *Societatea retro*, 2000.
22. Institute of Statistics, Tirana, *Yearbook of Educational Statistics*, 2000.
23. Azerbaijan, EFA Assessment 2000.
24. National Commission for Statistics, Romania, *Women and Men in Romania*, 2000.
25. State Statistical Agency, 1999
26. State Statistical Agency, 2002
27. EFA 2000 Assessment Report on Azerbaijan
28. Ministry of Macroeconomics and Statistics & State Department of Statistics, *Women and Men of Uzbekistan: Statistical Volume*, 2002, p.79.
29. UNIFEM, 2000.
30. International Helsinki Federation for Human Rights, 2000, p.129.
31. UNIFEM, 2000.
32. National Commission for Statistics, Romania, 2000.
33. UNIFEM, 2000.
34. Central Statistical Office, Poland, *Education in the School Year 1999/2000*, 2000.
35. State Statistical Committee of Azerbaijan Republic, *Women and Men in Azerbaijan 2000*, 2000.
36. Ministry of Macroeconomics and Statistics & State Department of Statistics, 2002, p. 61.
37. In 1999 girls accounted for 76 percent of those enrolled in healthcare and education courses, according to the State Statistical Institute.
38. Institute of Educational Science, 2001.
39. UNICEF, 2002, p. 37.
40. Pasti, Vladimir, and Cristina Ilinca, "O realitate a tranzitiei: discriminarea de gen," in Institutul de Studii ale Dezvoltarii, *Raport de cercetate*, 2001.
41. UNDP, *Azerbaijan Human Development Report*, 1996.
42. Ministry of Macroeconomics and Statistics & State Department of Statistics, 2002, p. 61.

Chapter 4

1. International Helsinki Federation for Human Rights, 2000.
2. CEDAW Committee, quoted in UNICEF, 1999.
3. UNICEF, 1999.
4. International Helsinki Federation for Human Rights, 2000.

5. Woycicka, Joanna, and Andrzej Dominiczak, *Education of Women: Polish Women in the 90s*, 2000.
6. World Bank, 2002.
7. Following the EU accession requirements, the Lithuanian government was the first to adopt the Act on Equal Opportunities in 1999, followed by Romania (2002) and Slovenia (2002).
8. Open Society Institute, *Equal Opportunities for Women and Men in Lithuania,* 2002.
9. The directory was compiled in 1999 and is available at the Women's/Gender Studies Association of the Countries in Transition website: http://www.wgsact.net/map.html. More updated information was obtained through the Soros foundations network in the beginning of 2003.
10. Miroiu, 2000.
11. UNESCO, EFA Global Monitoring Report, *Education for All: Is the World on Track?* 2002, p. 19.

Bibliography

Asian Development Bank. 2000. *Women in Tajikistan:Country Briefing Paper* [online]. Available: http://www.adb.org/Documents/Books/Country_Briefing_Papers/Women_in_Tajikistan/default.asp

Carr, M., M. Chen, and R. Jhabvala. 1996. *Speaking Out: Women's Economic Empowerment in South Asia.* London: Intermediate Technology Publications.

Center for Reproductive Law and Policy. 2000. *Women of the World: Laws and Policies Affecting Their Reproductive Lives, East Central Europe.* New York: Center for Reproductive Law and Policy.

Central Statistical Office, Poland. 2000. *Education in the School Year 1999/2000.* Warsaw: Central Statistical Office.

———. 2000. *Report on Rural Education in Albania and Suggested Reforms to Increase Its Effectiveness.* Tirana: Open Society Foundation, Albania Education Development Project.

de Waal, Clarissa. 2001. *Rural Education Research Report.* Budapest: Open Society Institute, Institute for Educational Policy.

Dudwick, Nora, and Helen Shahariari. 2000. *Education in Albania: Changing Attitudes and Expectations.* Washington DC: The World Bank.

Furniss, Elaine, ed. 1999. *Girls' Education, What is Working? What is New?*, UNICEF Education Update (Vol. 2: No.2).

"Gender Issues in the Field of Education, Health Care, Social Protection and Violence." 1999. Pp. 61-75 in *National Status Report on Gender: Tajikistan.* Dushanbe.

Govorun, Tamara and Borys M. Vomyk. 2000 *Ukraine: Demographic and Historical Perspective* [online]. Available: http://yellow-fever.rki.de/GESUND/ARCHIV/IES/UKRAINE.HTM

Grünberg, Laura. 1997. "Stereotipuri de gen in educatie: cazul unor manuale de ciclu primar" [Gender Stereotypes in Education: A Case Analysis of Several Primary Education Textbooks], in *Revista de Cercetari Sociale* (No. 2).

Grünberg, Laura, and Doina Olga Stefanescu (coord.). 2001. *Manifestari explicite si implicite ale genului in programele si manualele scolare, Raport intermediar.* Bucuresti: National Curriculum Reform Project.

Institute of Statistics, Albania. 2000. *Albania in Figures.* Tirana: Institute of Statistics.

———. Albania. 2000. *Yearbook of Education Statistics.* Tirana: Institute of Statistics.

International Helsinki Federation for Human Rights. 2000. *Women 2000: Investigation into the Status of Women's Rights in Central and South-Eastern Europe and the Newly Independent States.* Vienna: International Helsinki Federation for Human Rights.

Khegai, M. 2000. *Advancement of Gender Equality in Tajikistan.* Orvieto, Italy: Statistical Commission and Economic Commission for Europe, Conference of European Statistics, Work Session on Gender Statistics, Working Paper 11.

Kleinbach, Russ, and Sarah Amsler. 1999. "Kyrgyz Bride Kidnapping." *International Journal of Central Asian Studies, 4*.

Knothe, Maria Anna. 1999. "Poland's Economy in Transition: A Gender Perspective," in UNIFEM, *Progress of the Women of the World* 2000. New York: UNIFEM.

Laporte, Bruno and Dena Ringold. 1997. *Trends in Education Access and Financing During the Transition in Central and Eastern Europe.* Washington DC: The World Bank, World Bank Technical Paper No. 361.

Loghin, Dina, and SEF Foundation. 2000. *The Situation of Women in Romania: A Perspective on the Women's Status Questionnaire.* Bucharest: SEF Foundation.

Ministry of Macroeconomics and Statistics & State Department of Statistics, Republic of Uzbekistan. 2002. *Women and Men of Uzbekistan: Statistical Volume.* Tashkent, Uzbekistan: State Department of Statistics.

Miroiu, Mihaela. 2000. *Societatea retro.* Bucuresti: Editura Meridiane.

Miske, Shirley, ed. 2001. *Girl's Education: Thematic Studies.* Paris: UNESCO and UNICEF.

Motivans, Albert. 2000. *Education for All: Central and Eastern Europe Synthesis Report.,* Paris: UNESCO Institute of Statistics, UNICEF Innocenti Research Center.

National Commission for Statistics, Romania. 2000. *Women and Men in Romania.* Bucharest: National Commission for Statistics.

Ndreko, Merita. 1999. *The Albanian Women Facing Transition* [online]. Available: http://www.medmeia.org/review/numero3/en/art6.htm

Novicka, Wanda. 1997. "Poland: Case Study on Legal Instability Concerning Abortion," in World Health Organization, *Preventing and Addressing Unsafe Abortion: A Technical Consultation* [online]. Available: http://www.waw.pdi.net/~polfedwo/english/public/index.htm

———. 1997. *The Position of Women and Demographic Processes in the Countries in Transition* [online]. Available: http://www.waw.pdi.net/~polfedwo/english/lundpaper.htm

Open Society Institute. 2002. *Equal Opportunities for Women and Men in Lithuania* [online]. Available: http://www.eonet.ro/pdf/Lithuania.pdf

Pasti, Vladimir and Cristina Ilinca. 2001. "O realitate a tranzitiei: discriminarea de gen," in *Raport de cercetate.* Bucharesti: Institutul de Studii ale Dezvoltarii.

Polish Committee of NGOs. 1995. *The Situation of Women in Poland.* Warsaw: Polish Committee of NGOs.

Renzetti, Claire M., and Daniel J. Curran. 1999. *Women, Men, and Society*, 4th Ed. Boston, Mass.: Allyn & Bacon.

Rughinis, C. 2000. *Romania: Local Social Service Delivery Module on Roma Communities*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.

Schalkwyk, J., H. Thomas, and B. Woronuik. 1996. *Mainstreaming: A Strategy for Achieving Equality between Women and Men. A Think Piece.* Sida/Department for Policy and Legal Services.

State Statistical Committee of Azerbaijan Republic. 2000. *Women and Men in Azerbaijan* 2000. Baku: State Statistical Committee of Azerbaijan Republic.

Statistical Agency of the Government of the Republic of Tajikistan. 1998. *Report on Modern Gender Statistics in the Republic of Tajikistan*. Dushanbe: Statistical Agency of the Government of the Republic of Tajikistan.

Stromquist, Nelly P. 1995. *Gender, Equity, and Emancipatory Education in Latin America.* [online]. Available: http://www.cidi.oas.org/InteramerStromNel.htm#1

———. 2002. "Contributions and challenges of feminist theory to comparative education research and methodology," Pp. 227-260 in Schriewer, J. (Ed.), *Discourse Formation in Comparative Education.* Frankfurt am Main, Germany: Peter Lang.

Suslova, Olena, ed. 2000. *Empowered Education in the Region: Basic Survey.* Kiev: All-Ukrainian Association of Empowering Education and Communications and Open Society Institute, Network Women's Program and International Renaissance Foundation.

United Nations. 1997. *Report on the Implementation of CEDAW* [online]. Available: http://www.un.org/womenwatch/world/east_europe/cedaw/azerbaccm.htm

UNDP. 1996. *Azerbaijan Human Development Report* [online]. Available: http://www.undp.org/rbec/nhdr/1996/azerbaijan/informatioon.htm

———. 1998. *National Plan for Action for Advancement of Women for the Years: 1998-2005* [online]. Available: http://www.undp.uz/GID/eng/tajikistan/GENERAL/GGA/tj_nap.html

———. 1999. *Report on the Status of Women in Uzbekistan*. Tashkent, Uzbekistan: UNDP, Gender and Development Unit, Center for Economic Research.

UNESCO, *Education For All. 1990. Framework for Action: Meeting Basic Learning Needs, Guidelines for Implementing the World Declaration on Education for All* [online]. Available: http://www.unesco.org/education/efa/ed_for_all/background/07Bpubl.shtml

———, *Education For All. 1990. World Declaration on Education for All, Meeting Basic Learning Needs* [online]. Available: http://unesco.org/education/efa/ed_for_all/background/jomtien_declaration.shtml

UNESCO/EFA. 2000. *The EFA 2000 Assessment: Azerbaijan* [online]. Available: http://www2.unesco.org/wef/countryreports/azerbaijan/contents.html

———. 2000. *Education for All 2000 Assessment: Poland National Report* [online]. Available: http://www2.unesco.org/wef/countryreports/poland/contents.html

———. 2000. *Education for All 2000 Assessment: Romania National Report* [online]. Available: http://www2.unesco.org/wef/countryreports/romania/contents.html

———. 2000. *Education for All 2000 Assessment: Tajik National Report* [online]. Available: http://www2.unesco.org/wef/countryreports/tajikistan/contents.html

———. 2000. *Education for All 2000 Assessment: Ukraine National Report* [online]. Available: http://www2.unesco.org/wef/countryreports/ukraine/contents.html

———. 2001. *World Education Forum, Dakar 2000: Final Report.* Paris: UNESCO.

———. 2002. *EFA Global Monitoring Report. Education for All: Is the World on Track?* [online]. Available: http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0012/001297/129777e.pdf.

UNESCO/UNICEF, and Ministry of Education of the Republic of Tajikistan. 2002. *Results of the Study: Monitoring Learning Achievement in Primary School in Tajikistan and Problems of Non-Attendance.* Dushanbe: UNESCO and UNICEF, Azerbaijan Country Office.

UNESCO/UNICEF, and Association of Women with University Education. 2002. *Report on Fulfilling the Project: Girls' Education in Tajik Republic: Experience, Problems and Solutions.* Dushanbe: UNESCO and UNICEF, Azerbaijan Country Office.

UNICEF. 1999. *Children and Women in Azerbaijan: A Situation Analysis.* Baku: UNICEF.

———. 1999. *Women in Transition.* UNICEF International Child Development Center: Florence, Italy.

———. 2002. *Social Monitor 2002: Social Trends in Transition, HIV/AIDS and Young People, Quality of Learning in Schools*. UNICEF Innocenti Research Center: Florence, Italy

UNIFEM. 2000. *Progress of the World's Women 2000: UNIFEM Biennial Report.* New York: UNIFEM.

United Nations Resources on Gender. 2003. *Approaches to Gender Equality* [online]. Available: http://www.un.org/womenwatch/resources/goodpractices/approach.html

U.S. Department of State, Bureau of Democracy, Human Rights and Labor. 2000. *Albania: Country Reports on Human Rights Practices* [online]. Available: http://www.state.gov/g/drl/rls/hrrpt/2000/eur/

———. 2000. *Azerbaijan: Country Reports on Human Rights Practices* [online]. Available: http://www.state.gov/g/drl/rls/hrrpt/2000/eur/

———. 2000. *Poland: Country Reports on Human Rights Practices* [online]. Available: http://www.state.gov/g/drl/rls/hrrpt/2000/eur/

———. 2000. *Ukraine: Country Reports on Human Rights Practices* [online]. Available: http://www.state.gov/g/drl/rls/hrrpt/2000/eur/index.cfm?docid=854

WAGE/Beijing 1995. 2000. *Implementation of the Platform for Action by the Polish Government.* Alternative Report prepared for 44th session of Commission on the Status of Women. Warsaw.

Weber, Renate, and Mihaela Miroiu. 2000. *Barometru de gen.* [The Gender Barometer]. Bucuresti: Open Society Foundation and Gallup Organization.

Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children. 2002. *UNHCR Policy on Refugee Women and Guidelines on Their Protection: An Assessment of 10 Years of Implementation* [online]. Available: http://www.unhcr.ch

World Bank. 2002. *Gender in Transition* [online]. Available: http://lnweb18.worldbank.org/ECA/eca.nsf/General/F55E7337BA6942398525 6BFA0053F091?OpenDocument

Woroniuk, Beth, and Caryoln Hannan-Andersoon. 1999. *Mainstreaming Gender Equality in the 21st Century: Goals on Education, Health and the Environment: A Synthesis of Three Reference Documents.* Paris: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, OECD Working Party on Gender Equality, DCD/DAC/WID(99)11.

Woycicka, Joanna and Andrzej Dominiczak. 2000. *Education of Women: Polish Women in the 90s* [online]. Available: http://free.ngo.pl/temida/edu.htm

Zamfir, Elena, and Catalin Zamfir, eds. 1993. *Tiganii: intre ignorare si ingrijorare*, Bucuresti: Editura Alternative.

Suggested Further Reading

Central Statistical Office, Poland. 1998. *Education in the School Year 1997/1998.* Warsaw: Central Statistical Office, Information and Statistical Papers.

Georgescu, Dakmara. 2000. *The Reform of Education: A Chance for the Change of Mentality.* Bucharest: Editura UMC.

Grünberg, Laura, and Mihaela Miroiu (coord.). 1997. *Gen si educatie, Egalitate prin diferenta, Program de educatie non sexista.* Bucuresti: AnA.

International Helsinki Federation for Human Rights. 2000. *Special Issues: A Perspective on Women's Status* [online]. Available: http://www.greekhelsinki.gr/english/reports/ihf-women-july-2000.html

Kayazimov, Namik, et al. 1998. "Children in Azerbaijan: Report on the Basis of Sociological Research," in SIGMA, *Children in Azerbaijan*. Baku: SIGMA.

Lazreg, M. 2000. *Making the Transition Work for Women in Europe and Central Asia.* Washington DC: World Bank, World Bank Discussion Paper no. WDP 411, Europe and Central Asia Gender and Development Series.

Marga, Andrei. 2000. *The Educational Reform in Romania, 1988–2000.* Bucharest: Ministry of National Education of Romania.

Miroiu, Mihaela. 1998. "Inegalitatea de sanse in educatie," In Miroiu, Adrian (Coord.), *Invatamantul romanesc azi: studiu de diagnoza*, pp.139-156. Bucuresti: Polirom.

———. 2000. *The Gender Dimension of Education in Romania* [online]. Available: http://www.iwm.at/publ-spp/soco83pp.pdf

Novac, Cornelia, et al. 1998. *Cartea alba a reformei invatamatului* [online]. Available: http://www.edu.ro/catealb.htm

Open Society Institute. 2002. *Education Development in Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan and Uzbekistan: Challenges and Ways Forward.* Budapest: Open Society Institute, Education Support Program.

Pigozzi, Mary Joy. 2001. *Girls' Education: Improving Both Access and Quality.* New York: United Nations Children's Fund.

Ringold, Dena. 2000. *Education of the Roma in Central and Eastern Europe: Trends and Challenges.* Washington DC: World Bank.

SIGMA. 1998. *Children in Azerbaijan.* Baku: Strategic Research Center for Development and International Cooperation (SIGMA).

———. 2000. *Gender and Economy.* Baku: Strategic Research Center for Development and International Cooperation (SIGMA).

State Statistical Agency of Tajikistan. 2000. *Report on Progress in the Field of Gender Statistics in Tajikistan.* Orvieto, Italy: Statistical Commission and Economic Commission for Europe, Conference of European Statistics, Joint ECE/UNDP Workshop on Gender Statistics for Policy Monitoring and Benchmarking.

UNDP. 1999. *Tajikistan Human Development Report 1999* [online]. Available: http://www.undp.tj/publications/NHDR/nhdr99chap1.htm

———. 2000. *Femeile si barbatii in Romania.* Bucuresti: Arri Press.

———. 2000. *UNDP Human Development Report 2000* [online]. Available: http://undp.ro/NHDR/NHDR-2000.htm

UNDP Romania. 1999. *The Status of Women in Romania 1997–1998.* Bucharest: UNDP, Romania Country Office.

UNDP and Romanian Academy. 1999. *National Human Development Report: Romania 1999.* Bucharest: Expert Press.

UNICEF. 2000. *Defining Quality in Education.* New York: UNICEF, Education Working Paper Series.

UNICEF and Azerbaijan Republic Ministry of Health. 2000. *Enrollment at State Secondary Vocational Schools by Field of Study 1999/2000* [online]. Available: http://gender.mednet.az/mnetbned03e.htm

———. 2000. *Level of Education by Age, 1989* [online]. Available: http://gender.mednet.az/mnetbned01e.htm

United Nations. 2000. *Gender Analysis of Ukrainian Society* [online]. Available: http://www.un.kiev.ua:8080/gender/publ/analysis/intro.htm

Vodopivec, Palomba. 2000. *Financing, Efficiency and Equity in Albania Education.* Washington DC: World Bank.

Useful Websites

Albania

Ministry of Education and Science
http://www.mash.gov.al/ministria_eng/home.html

World Bank Gender Site, Gender Status, Summary Gender Profile: Albania
http://genderstats.worldbank.org/genderRpt.asp?rpt=profile&cty=ALB,Albania&hm=home

Azerbaijan

Country Educational Report: Azerbaijan. Education-Gender Disaggregated Data
http://www.girlseducation.org/PGE_Active_Pages/Data/CountryEdProf/main.asp

Ministry of Education
http://edu.gov.az

World Bank Gender Site, Gender Status, Summary Gender Profile: Azerbaijan
http://genderstats.worldbank.org/genderRpt.asp?rpt=profile&cty=AZE,Azerbaijan&hm=home

Poland

Ministry of Education
http://www.men.waw.pl/english/index-en.htm

World Bank Gender Site, Gender Status Summary. Gender Profile: Poland
http://genderstats.worldbank.org/genderRpt.asp?rpt=profile&cty=POL,Poland&hm=homend

Romania

Human Development Under Transition: Romania
http://www.undp.org/rbec/nhdr/1996/summary/romania.htm

Ministry of Education and Science
http://www.edu.ro/

Romania. Factbook 2000, Education. Pupils, Students, Teachers and Public Expenditures for Education in 1996
http://www.factbook.net/educ.php

World Bank Gender Site, Gender Status Summary. Gender Profile: Romania
http://genderstats.worldbank.org/genderRpt.asp?rpt=profile&cty=ROM,Romania&hm=home

Tajikistan

World Bank Gender Site, Gender Status Summary. Gender Profile: Tajikistan
http://genderstats.worldbank.org/genderRpt.asp?rpt=profile&cty=TJK,Tajikistan&hm=home

Ukraine

World Bank Gender Site, Gender Status Summary. Gender Profile: Ukraine
http://genderstats.worldbank.org/genderRpt.asp?rpt=profile&cty=UKR,Ukraine&hm=home

General Web Resources

EFA
http://www2.unesco.org/wef/countryreports/country_all.html#a

ETF
http://www.etf.eu.int

European Union On-line
http://www.men.waw.pl/english/index-en.htm

Girls Education, Country Education Profiles
http://www.girlseducation.org

IBE
http://www.ibe.unesco.org/International/Databanks/Wde/wde.htm

International Helsinki Federation for Human Rights
http://www.ihf-hr.org

IWRAW: International Women's Rights Action Watch
http://www.igc.org/iwraw/

OECD
http://www.oecd.org/els/education/ei/about.htm

NEWW
http://www.neww.org/

South East European Educational Cooperation Network
http://www.see-educoop.net

UNDP RBEC Regional GID Program
http://www.undp.uz/GID/

UNESCO: World Data on Education, 2000.
http://www.unesco.org/education/index.shtml

UNICEF
http://www.unicef.org/

UNICEF Web-page Statistics
http://www.unicef.org/statis/europe.htm

USAID (US Agency for International Development)
http://www.usaid.gov/regions/europe_eurasia/#counties

World Bank
http://www.worldbank.org

About the Authors

Cathryn Magno is Assistant Professor in the Department of Educational Leadership at Southern Connecticut State University. She is a gender specialist with a background in human rights, migration, and community organizing. She has researched and implemented education programs for international organizations such as USAID, UNICEF, and the International Rescue Committee, and has considerable experience in the evaluation of education programs in CEE, SEE, and the fSU. She holds an Ed.M. from Harvard University and a Ph.D. in Comparative Education from Teachers College, Columbia University.

Iveta Silova has been affiliated with the Open Society Institute since 1997, working as program officer, consultant, and advisor on education policy, basic education, minority education, and gender equity. She has extensive experience in program development, implementation, and evaluation in CEE, SEE, and the fSU. She holds a Ph.D. in Comparative and International Education from Teachers College, Columbia University. Currently, she is a visiting professor in the Political Science and Public Administration Department at KIMEP (Kazakhstan Institute for Management, Economics, and Strategic Research) in Almaty, Kazakhstan.

Susan Wright is a freelance education consultant with a special interest in gender and policy issues. Now based in London, she worked for the Open Society Institute for three years, specializing in education policy and gender issues in CEE, SEE, and the fSU. Before moving to Budapest she worked for the UK's largest teacher's organization. She has an M.A. in Economic and Social History from the University of St. Andrews.

Eniko Demeny is a research assistant at the Political Science Department of Central European University (CEU) in Budapest, Hungary, and a Ph.D. candidate in Social Philosophy at Babes-Bolyai University, Cluj, Romania. She holds an M.A. in Gender Studies from CEU, as well as a Specialization in Cultural Anthropology and a B.A. in Sociology from Babes-Bolyai University.